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DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR
BUREAU OF EDUCATION

BULLETIN, 1918, No. 15

EDUCATIONAL SURVEY OF ELYRIA, OHIO

MADE UNDER THE DIRECTION OF THE
UNITED STATES COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION

WASHINGTON
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE
1918

BULLETIN OF THE BUREAU OF EDUCATION FOR 1918.

No. 1. Monthly record of current educational publications, January, 1918.
No. 2. Guide to United States Government publications. W. I. Swanton.
No. 3. Agricultural instruction in the high schools of six eastern States. C. H. Lane.
No. 4. Monthly record of current educational publications, February, 1918.
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No. 15. Educational survey of Elyria, Ohio.
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No. 22. Monthly record of current educational publications—Index, February, 1917, to January, 1918.
No. 23. State laws relating to education enacted in 1915, 1916, and 1917. William R. Hood.
No. 24. Vocational guidance and the public schools. W. Carson Ryan, jr.
No. 25. Industrial education in Wilmington, Delaware.
No. 26. The national council of primary education.
No. 27. Rural teacher preparation in State normal schools. Ernest Burnham.
No. 28. The public schools of Columbia, South Carolina.
No. 29. American agricultural colleges.
No. 30. Resources and standards of colleges of arts and sciences.
No. 31. The educational system of South Dakota.
No. 32. Teaching American ideals through literature. Henry Neumann.
No. 33. Monthly record of current educational publications, September, 1918.
No. 34. Monthly record of current educational publications, October, 1918.
No. 35. Cardinal principles of secondary education. A report of the Commission on Secondary Education.
No. 36. Educational Directory, 1918–19.
No. 37. Clothing conservation for high-school girls. S. Deborah Haines.

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LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL.

Department of the Interior,
Bureau of Education,
Washington, May 8, 1918.

Sir: I am submitting herewith for publication as a bulletin of the Bureau of Education the report of a survey of the schools of the city of Elyria, Ohio, which was made under my direction in the fall of 1916 and early spring of 1917 at the request of the board of education of that city. The report will, I believe, be useful not only to the board of education and the citizens of Elyria, but to school officers in many other cities of about the same size and to students of education generally.

The report should have been printed much earlier, but there was unavoidable delay in its official preparation.

Respectfully submitted.

P. P. Claxton,
Commissioner.

The Secretary of the Interior.

EDUCATIONAL SURVEY OF ELYRIA, OHIO.

INTRODUCTION.

During the fall of 1916 the Chamber of Commerce of Elyria, Ohio, invited the United States Commissioner of Education to make a survey of the Elyria public-school system.

The invitation was accepted upon the following conditions:

1. That the Bureau of Education shall be invited by the Elyria Board of Education and that the invitation shall be indorsed by the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State.
2. That the survey commission may be permitted to find the facts as they are and to report them as they find them.
3. That the survey commission and the Commissioner of Education may make on the basis of the facts found such recommendations for the improvement of the schools as may seem wise, these recommendations to be not only such as may be put into operation immediately, but also such as may be put into operation from year to year as opportunity may permit; in other words, that the survey commission and the Commissioner of Education may be permitted to outline a constructive program which will receive at least the careful consideration of school officials.
4. That the Bureau of Education shall be permitted to publish the report of the survey, including the recommendations and reasons therefor, as a bulletin of the bureau, for distribution in the city of Elyria and also for general distribution.
5. That the necessary expenses shall be paid, which include the necessary traveling and local expenses of the members of the bureau engaged on the work and the necessary honorariums for such persons as it may be necessary to employ to assist in the work.

The secretary of the board of education wrote the Commissioner of Education:

> I have been unanimously instructed by the board of education to request you to make a complete survey of the Elyria city schools. We wish to assure you that you will have the hearty cooperation of the board, superintendent, and teachers in carrying on the work. The board of education can not assume any of the cost of the survey; however, we understand that the educational committee of the chamber of commerce has a plan whereby the expenses of the survey will be fully met.

The secretary of the chamber of commerce then notified the Commissioner of Education that the chamber of commerce would hold itself liable for expenses not to exceed $2,500.

The United States Commissioner of Education named as a survey commission the following persons:

From the Bureau of Education—
  T. M. Ave L'Allemant.—Education of the immigrant.
  William T. Bawden.—Manual training and vocational education.
  Mrs. Henrietta W. Calvin.—Home economics.
  W. S. Deffenbaugh.—Administration, supervision, and instruction, director of field work of survey commission.
  F. B. Dresslar.—School buildings.
  Miss Florence C. Fox.—Primary education.
  Arthur W. Dunn.—Civic education.
  John L. Randall.—School and home gardening.
From outside the Bureau of Education—
  Will Earhart.—Music (director of music, public schools, Pittsburgh, Pa.).
  August Hiller.—Finance (chief accountant, public schools, Pittsburgh, Pa.).
  C. Valentine Kirby.—Fine arts (director of art, public schools, Pittsburgh, Pa.).
  W. C. Ruediger.—Elementary education (dean, Teachers' College, George Washington University, Washington, D. C.).
  William F. Russell.—Secondary education (professor of secondary education, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tenn.).

Three members of the survey commission spent two weeks in Elyria in the fall of 1916. The other members spent from one to six weeks during the months of January and February, 1917.

Chapter I.

THE CITY OF ELYRIA.

Elyria, Ohio, owes its name and its existence to Heman Ely, formerly of West Springfield, Mass., who acquired the land on which the present city stands on March 27, 1817. The tract comprised 12,000 acres, and it was known as No. 6, Range 17, Connecticut Western Reserve. Mr. Ely spent his entire life after that time in developing the resources of the locality. He established sawmills and gristmills and similar industries and organized the Lorain Iron Co. in 1832.

The location of the city is distinctly favorable. It is about 25 miles southwest of Cleveland and 8 miles from Lake Erie at the nearest point, the city of Lorain. Two trunk railway lines, the New York Central and the Baltimore & Ohio, pass through the city, and five trolley lines radiate in five directions and connect Elyria with all the principal towns and cities of Ohio, Indiana, and west Pennsylvania. Two electric lines and the Baltimore & Ohio Railroad afford excellent facilities for Lake shipments via Lorain.

The industrial and social community of Elyria includes a number of villages or towns, the chief of which are Grafton and Wellington. Both of these places were formerly centers of active sandstone quarries, but this industry has declined because of the increased use of cement and concrete in building. The greater part of the high-grade sandstone now quarried is used for grindstone. As a result of the industrial change in the chief industry in these villages, their working population had to find employment in other fields, and naturally went to find it in the developing industries of Elyria, the nearest city.

A feature reflecting the intimate interdependence of the communities in the vicinity of Elyria is the large number of young working women, mostly Poles, who live in Lorain but work in Elyria, because the city of Lorain offers but little desirable factory employment for young women.

In 1900 the population of Elyria was 8,791; in 1910 it was 14,825; in 1917 the estimated population was between 20,000 and 25,000. There are 3,239 dwellings and 3,519 families. Fifty per cent of the population are native born of native parents; 30 per cent are native born of foreign parents, and 20 per cent are foreign born. The nationalities represented by the foreigners are German, Dane, French, and

Hungarian, the Germans predominating. Of the foreign born represented in the industries the Hungarians predominate. This nationality furnishes the basic industries of the city with the greater portion of "roustabouts"; that is, workmen who do common labor of a rough and heavy nature.

The fact that the industrial development of Elyria is of recent date and has taken place to a certain extent against the wishes and under the protests of the older residents has caused the location of the industrial establishments near the outskirts of the city, in a direction west, northwest, or northeast of the main residential district. A separate foreign settlement has developed which is called West Heights, the dominant nationality of the settlement being Hungarian. Elyria, however, has no slums and no congested district, and the pressure of the problems which ordinarily affect an immigrant community is not so great as it otherwise would be. The problem of educating the children of foreign-born parents and of educating the parents themselves is an important problem, nevertheless.

The efforts that are made to educate the foreign-born adults are under semipublic auspices at the settlement house at West Heights, where an active settlement worker, a kindergarten teacher of the public schools, and a teacher in the manual-training department of the night school are teaching classes in English and civics.

The first school in Elyria was opened in 1819, and the first church was organized in 1824. There are now 15 churches, representing all the principal denominations, a Young Men's Christian Association building, which cost $141,000, and a Young Woman's Christian Association building, which cost $16,000. There are nine public-school buildings, a German school, two Catholic schools, and one business college. Oberlin College, only 6 miles distant, may be considered one of the educational institutions of the Elyria community. The Elyria Memorial Hospital, representing an expenditure of $225,000, consists of a general hospital, Gates Home for Crippled Children, and Nurses' Home. An additional $100,000 is now being expended on buildings. The Elyria Library was founded in 1870 upon a bequest of Mr. Charles Ely.

Cascade Park, a beautiful natural park, is a place for recreation not only for the children of the city but for the adults as well. For the wealthy inhabitants of the city there is a country club, which maintains golf links, tennis courts, etc. In the city there are halls maintained by the Elks, Knights of Columbus, and other social and fraternal organizations usually found in cities.

There are four banks, which have on deposit about $9,000,000; the community is by no means a poor one. The chamber of commerce, which is responsible to a large extent for the growth of the city, has commodious quarters in one of the principal buildings of the city and employs a secretary and several clerks.

There are 63 factories, employing 6,000 men and 300 women and girls. The principal products are steel, sheet steel, tubing, bolts, nuts, screws, invalids' chairs, dies, tools, enameled ware, hosiery, electrical goods, chemicals, ammunition, automobile motors, etc. The factories represent an investment of over $10,000,000 and their total annual output is more than $9,000,000. Much is done by the factories to insure the contentment and permanent residence of their employees; and clubs, bowling alleys, lunch rooms, etc., are provided in most cases.

Chapter II.

SUMMARY OF CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS.

ADMINISTRATION AND SUPERVISION.

1. The minimum educational and professional standard for elementary teachers should be the completion of a four-year high-school course and a two-year normal-school course.

2. Salaries of teachers should be increased and the salary schedule revised, making the promotion of teachers depend upon improvement rather than upon length of service.

3. A card system for keeping a permanent record of pupils should be introduced.

4. An attendance officer should be employed on full time.

5. There should be more supervision in the elementary grades, which can be accomplished by the employment of a supervisor for the kindergarten and the first six grades and the employment of a supervisor for the junior high school. Provision should be made for the supervision of music and art. A supervisor, teaching part time, should be employed to supervise the work in manual arts, and one, teaching part time, to supervise the work in home economics. School gardening should be under the supervision of the teacher of agriculture, who should be employed for 12 months in the year. Provision should be made for playground supervision.

6. A cost-accounting system should be introduced to show expenditure for each building and for each kind of school.

7. The State tax law should be revised so that it would be possible for Elyria to obtain more funds for its schools.

8. The number of failures and the rather excessive retardation could be reduced by—

(*a*) A course of study better suited to the development and interests of the children.

(*b*) More and better supervision.

(*c*) The advancement of the teacher with her class for three or four years.

(*d*) A summer school for pupils who have failed.

(*e*) The division of each primary grade into three or four groups instead of two, so that pupils may be promoted more frequently.

SCHOOL BUILDINGS.

1. The Washington, or old high-school building, should be reconstructed and renovated or else torn down and rebuilt.

2. Floors should not be scrubbed, but treated with hot linseed oil.

3. Cement walks should be built.

4. Humidifying devices should be provided.

5. All shades should be removed from north windows.

6. Teachers in east rooms should be required to roll up shades in the afternoons and those in west rooms should do so in the forenoons.

7. Conferences for janitors should be instituted.

8. Ventilation in mild weather should be improved when the fans are not running.

9. More drinking fountains easily accessible to small children should be provided.

10. The method of seating which places children too far from the front of the room should be corrected.

HIGH SCHOOL.

(1) The three present curricula should be expanded into at least six, providing definite preparation for classical, general, and scientific work in college, and for industry, commerce, agriculture, and the home.

(2) The board of education should issue a booklet giving detailed information about these curricula and about the prospects of children electing each kind of work; the booklets should be distributed some time before a choice is to be made, so that teachers, principals, parents, and children may have information upon which to choose.

(3) The principal should take up with the teachers, through observation and in teachers' meetings, the findings of this survey in regard to mechanical errors in teaching.

(4) The board of education should make much more ample provision for teachers to visit the classes of other teachers.

(5) The practice of giving one teacher a number of sections of the same subject should be discontinued, and teachers should be encouraged to teach sections in several different classes and of several closely allied subjects. We especially recommend that each teacher have at least one first-year class.

(6) A number of teachers' meetings should be given to a consideration of the theoretical study of methods of teaching.

(7) A regular system for purchasing books for the library should be devised; the library should be catalogued and better supervised.

(8) The faculty should give consideration to the system of marking, to the end that there may be more unanimity as to standards.

(9) Salaries should be increased.

(10) The gap now existing between the elementary schools and the high schools should be bridged by the interpolation of the junior high school.

ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

Primary grades.—1. The subject of reading should be adapted to the individual pupil to a greater extent in order to lessen the failures in the first grades. More freedom for the teacher is needed in her use of methods and devices and a greater emphasis placed by her on the reading lesson which trains for appreciation.

2. Arithmetic lessons are developed logically rather than pedagogically. More application of number to measurement and construction work is needed. Reduce the time given to this subject.

3. A definite, systematic assignment for oral language should be placed in every program. The teacher should cultivate literary appreciation and the art of story telling.

4. New songs and new methods are needed in the primary singing exercises, and the use of music as a mode of expression closely correlated with the subjects of study is recommended.

5. A closer application of phonics to the spelling should be made and emphasis placed upon the auditory image rather than the visual image.

6. Materials and adequate desk room should be provided to make effective the instruction in penmanship.

7. More varieties of material should be provided for seat work, and a carefully prepared program for this work extending through at least one term of the school year should be prearranged by the teacher in every grade.

8. There should be more spontaneity in games and greater opportunity for initiative in these exercises.

9. An assistant nurse should be employed to make the work of the school nurse wholly effective.

10. Consideration should be given in the course of study to the out-of-school activities of the children in the lower grades. These interests should be collected and used as suggestive material for the daily program throughout the year.

11. A primary supervisor is recommended for these grades, who shall be prepared to direct all the subjects of study enumerated in the curriculum.

12. Kindergartens should be reestablished and the work done in them integrated with that of the primary grades.

Intermediate and grammar-school grades.—Introduce more of the spirit of delight in reading; give more practice in silent reading; provide more opportunity for relatively free reading for pleasure, and transfer much of the nonliterary material to other subjects.

Recognize nature study as a distinct subject in the curriculum and correlate especially with language, geography, and gardening.

Reduce the time given to formal grammar and correlate the work more intimately with the other school subjects and out-of-school interests.

Adopt either a good series of spelling books or a standard word list.

Dispense with the teacher of penmanship and hold the classroom teachers responsible for results.

Vitalize the subject of geography through the adoption of a series of geographical readers, through the use of geographical magazines, pictures, specimens, and observational astronomy, and through a more liberal use of globes and maps.

Relate arithmetic more closely to the pupils' interests in and out of school; let the children weigh and measure; correlate later with earlier topics and develop thoughtfulness by studying how to solve.

In general, vitalize the work by enlisting more generally the activity of the pupils and by relating the school subjects more intimately to those phases of the world outside to which they pertain.

CIVICS.

1. Provision should be made in both junior and senior high-school periods (or grammar school and high school) for adequate instruction designed explicitly to train for citizenship, and adapted carefully both to the civic and social needs of the present time and to the capabilities and experience of the pupils; and to this end the social studies of the periods in question should be thoroughly reorganized.

2. Training for citizenship should be recognized more definitely as a conspicuous aim of the entire work of the elementary and secondary schools, involving the cultivation of civic habits and traits as well as civic intelligence; and instruction in all subjects, the in-school and out-of-school activities of the pupils and the participation of the pupils in the control of such activities should be made to contribute to the fulfillment of this aim.

3. A head of a department of social studies should be appointed who shall be a director of the civic educational work of the schools; regular conferences of teachers of social studies and directors of pupil activities should be provided for, and other means adopted for the training and guidance of teachers in service for more effective methods of civic training.

4. Adequate provision should be made for the Americanization and civic education of the foreign population, both through the channel of the day schools and through evening classes for adults.

5. A closer relation should be established between the school and the community in recognition of the interdependence of 100 per cent efficiency in community life and 100 per cent citizenship, and ex-

pressed in a closer coordination between the schools and the public library and other public institutions, the use of the schools as community centers, further development of the parent-teacher associations, and the closer adaptation of school work to actual community needs.

SCHOOL AND HOME GARDENING.

Elementary schools.—1. The high-school agricultural department should be the central influence in the promotion and direction of school-directed home gardening in the elementary schools.

2. The high-school teacher of agriculture should conduct practical after-school classes for the training of home-garden teachers in the grades.

3. One regular grade teacher, after having received sufficient garden training, should direct the home gardening of the children in the school to which she is assigned. This work should be done after school, on Saturday, and during the summer vacation, and the teacher should receive additional compensation for it.

4. A part-time garden teacher should be provided for each of the following schools: Hamilton, Jefferson, Gage, Franklin, McKinley. One teacher should conduct the work in the Garford and Ridge Schools.

5. A careful record of the money value of the crops raised should be kept in order to prove the financial as well as the educational success.

6. The gardening should be made as intensive as possible, and should continue through the maximum number of days possible in this climate. Winter gardening should be encouraged.

High school.—1. A course in agriculture should be offered in the high school instead of electives in several courses, adopting the Massachusetts plan of arranging studies and home projects.

2. A high-school instructor in agriculture should be employed for 12 months in the year, who should also direct home gardening of elementary school pupils and train his assistants.

3. Extra compensation should be provided for six grade teachers assigned to teach gardening outside of regular school hours.

MUSIC.

1. A manual and course of study for the elementary schools should be prepared. The school board should provide copies of rote song books for first and second year teachers, pitch pipes for all teachers, and a liberal supply of music for high-school orchestra and glee clubs. Orchestral groups should be developed in the elementary schools.

2. Requirements in music for elementary teachers should be increased.

3. In the high school there should be two periods a week of 45 minutes each devoted to chorus practice.

4. There should be strict control over credit for music taken outside of school.

5. The high-school auditorium should be open one night each week for community chorus singing.

6. It is desirable to have a piano for each floor of each elementary school, a reed organ and supplementary song books in sets of 45 or 50 for each elementary school, and in the high school a course in harmony and a course in musical appreciation and history, elective three recitations a week with the same credit as academic subjects.

ART.

1. The supervision of art should be restored at the earliest possible moment.

2. Art work should appear in the eighth grade.

3. There should be better equipment and more supplies of teaching art in the elementary schools.

4. Some art study should be planned and continued through the grades that will create a love for the world's best art, and some acquaintance with the principles and facts underlying it.

5. Elective courses should be offered in the high school so that any boy or girl may select, under guidance, any work in drawing, design, color, or any of the crafts that would be of service.

HOME ECONOMICS.

1. Make of arts and crafts a separate elective course in the high school, open to boys as well as girls.

2. Give a prevocational aspect to the instruction in home economics in the grades and in the first high-school year.

3. Make home economics a required subject for all girls from the fifth grade to the first high-school year, inclusive, and an elective in the second, third, and fourth high-school years.

4. Make the necessary changes gradually over a period of three years.

5. When the new conditions are fully established, employ one supervisor of home economics, teaching part time, six special teachers of home making in the grades, and three special teachers for home economics in the high school, and for night and special classes.

6. Shorten the noon intermission for high school, and provide hot lunches to high-school teachers and students.

7. Organize afternoon and evening classes for adults and for young women employed during the day.

8. Provide more sewing machines, better equipment in particulars enumerated, and make specified changes in the use of rooms.

9. Include laboratories for home economics in all plans for new buildings.

10. Construct a "model cottage" in the Hungarian section of the city, and equip a "practice apartment" in the high school.

MANUAL TRAINING.

1. Appoint a supervisor to have charge of all manual training and vocational classes, with an assistant to direct the handwork in grades one to six. These two should give not more than half-time to teaching.

2. A scheme of handwork throughout the grades should be carefully organized, with a time allotment ranging from 30 or 60 minutes per week in the first years, to one-fifth or one-fourth of the present school time in the upper grades.

3. Some reorganization of the elementary school course of study is desirable in order to give handwork a due proportion of the school time.

4. The manual arts should not be limited to general educational aims, though these should receive the greatest emphasis in the early years. Beginning with the seventh school year, the prevocational aim for most children and the vocational aim for some children should have definite recognition.

5. Shop and laboratory equipment should be adapted gradually to the new point of view, which conceives of problems or projects to be worked out by the pupils.

6. A library of the best current literature pertaining to the manual arts, vocational guidance, and vocational education, should be made at once available to teachers and pupils.

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION.

1. School instruction, especially in shop and drawing, should be related more definitely to real life situations and should function more definitely in preparing young people for living.

2. The special six-year vocational course and the technical vocational courses in the high school should be strengthened and extended, with the twofold aim of assisting young people to choose and prepare for vocations, while at the same time preparing for intelligent citizenship and the discharge of individual and social obligations.

3. Evening classes of the kinds enumerated should be organized for employed workers.

4. Advisory committees representative of employers and employees should be organized.

5. Part-time day continuation schools should be organized in certain lines of business and industry.

Chapter III.

ADMINISTRATION AND SUPERVISION.

FINANCES.

The chief obstacle to the adequate financing of the public schools of Elyria is the limitation imposed by State law on taxation. The direct tax for operating expenses for all purposes—State, county, city, and school—is limited to 10 mills, with another 5 mills for interest and sinking fund. The tax levy for all school purposes may not exceed in any year 5 mills on the dollar of taxable property in the school district; the aggregate of all taxes levied by a municipality for corporation purposes may not exceed 5 mills; the aggregate of all taxes for township purposes may not exceed 2 mills.

The levy in Elyria is up to the 15-mill limit, distributed as follows: State, 0.45 mill; county, 1.85 mills; township, 0.02 mill; road district, 2.57 mills; school, 3.5 mills for general purposes, 1.055 mills interest and sinking fund; city, 3.34 mills for general purposes, 2.135 mills interest and sinking fund, 0.1 mill flood emergency. For the past three years the tax for the road district and for interest and sinking fund has reduced the 10 mills, leaving only 9.146 mills in 1914; 9.036 mills in 1915; and 9.16 mills in 1916 for the State, county, city, and school.

When the tax rate for Elyria, both for city and school purposes, is compared with that of other cities of about the same size as Elyria, it is found to be low, as may be noted from the following table:

Tax rate on each $100 assessed valuation.

FOR SCHOOL PURPOSES.		FOR SCHOOL PURPOSES—contd.	
Dubois, Pa	$2.00	Tonawanda, N. Y	$1.04
Muscatine, Iowa	1.75	Hackensack, N. J	.96
Fargo, N. Dak	1.62	Missoula, Mont	.95
East Chicago, Ind	1.54	Connersville, Ind	.92
Beaver Falls, Pa	1.30	Bethlehem, Pa	.90
Meadville, Pa	1.30	Trinidad, Colo	.88
Homestead, Pa	1.20	Greensburg, Pa	.85
Mankato, Minn	1.20	Lewiston, Idaho	.85
Goshen, Ind	1.12	Spartanburg, S. C	.85
Helena, Mont	1.10	Morristown, N. J	.85

Tax rate on each $100 assessed valuation—Continued.

FOR SCHOOL PURPOSES—contd.

Cadillac, Mich	$0.80
Sioux Falls, S. Dak	.79
Plainfield, N. J	.78
Fairmont, W. Va	.72
Braddock, Pa	.70
Lawrence, Kans	.68
Hutchinson, Kans	.66
Adrian, Mich	.62
Emporia, Kans	.60
Boise, Idaho	.60
Chickasha, Okla	.60
Melrose, Mass	.56
Winfield, Kans	.55
Ironwood, Mich	.50
Henderson, Ky	.50
Athens, Ga	.50
Elyria, Ohio	*.455*
Piqua, Ohio	.45
Middleton, Ohio	.41
Marshall, Tex	.40
Marietta, Ohio	.40
Sandusky, Ohio	.37
Greenville, Miss	.30
Selma, Ala	.30
Jackson, Miss	.30

FOR GENERAL CITY PURPOSES.

Fargo, N. Dak	$2.61
East Chicago, Ind	1.96
Dubois, Pa	1.50
Goshen, Ind	1.50
Athens, Ga	1.50
Lewiston, Idaho	1.50
Tonawanda, N. Y	1.47
Jackson, Miss	$1.35
Marshall, Tex	1.34
Greenville, Miss	1.30
Connersville, Ind	1.29
Cadillac, Mich	1.27
Spartanburg, S. C	1.25
Missoula, Mont	1.25
Helena, Mont	1.25
Muscatine, Iowa	1.22
Meadville, Pa	1.20
Beaver Falls, Pa	1.20
Henderson, Ky	1.15
Morristown, N. J	1.08
Boise, Idaho	1.07
Chickasha, Okla	1.06
Trinidad, Colo	1.00
Homestead, Pa	1.00
Sioux Falls, S. Dak	.99
Bloomfield, N. J	.97
Bethlehem, Pa	.90
Greensburg, Pa	.90
Adrian, Mich	.87
Emporia, Kans	.87
Braddock, Pa	.85
Hackensack, N. J	.82
Hutchinson, Kans	.80
Winfield, Kans	.72
Selma, Ala	.70
Lawrence, Kans	.69
Ironwood, Mich	.62
Elyria, Ohio	*.56*
Marietta, Ohio	.47
Parkersburg, W. Va	.41
Fairmont, W. Va	.40

A more nearly equitable comparison of tax rates in different cities is on real wealth rather than on assessed valuation, since there is no uniformity throughout the country and but very little in the same State in assessing property. The chief difficulty in making a comparison of this kind is the fact that few city officials know the real valuation of their cities. Superintendents in several cities of less than 25,000 population have furnished this bureau with statistics giving the estimated wealth of their respective cities. The following table shows for these cities the tax rate on estimated real wealth:

Tax rate for school purposes on $100 estimated real wealth.

Keokuk, Iowa	$0.98	Adrian, Mich	$0.52
Sioux Falls, S. Dak	.79	Parkersburg, W. Va	.49
Homestead, Pa	.72	Hutchinson, Kans	.46
Dubois, Pa	.70	*Elyria, Ohio*	*.46*
Meadville, Pa	.65	Piqua, Ohio	.45
Plainfield, N. J	.62	Mankato, Minn	.40
Boise, Idaho	.60	Henderson, Ky	.39
Chickasha, Okla	.60	Fargo, N. Dak	.23
Cadillac, Mich	.60	Selma, Ala	.21
Tonawanda, N. Y	.58	Marshall, Tex	.20
Braddock, Pa	.57	Greenville, Miss	.20
Helena, Mont	.55		

A further comparison is made with a group of cities of between 25,000 and 50,000 population, showing the tax rate on assessed and estimated real valuation for the city and the school corporation. The data, except for Elyria, are from the United States Census Report for 1915.

Tax rate on assessed valuation.

FOR SCHOOL PURPOSES.		FOR GENERAL CITY PURPOSES.	
Joliet, Ill	$3.75	Lincoln, Nebr	$3.80
Lincoln, Nebr	3.70	Cedar Rapids, Iowa	3.61
Cedar Rapids, Iowa	3.53	Sioux City, Iowa	3.04
Sioux City, Iowa	2.97	Joliet, Ill	2.02
Joplin, Mo	1.50	Butte, Mont	1.52
Springfield, Mo	1.12	Amsterdam, N. Y	1.51
Everett, Wash	1.15	Joplin, Mo	1.50
Pasadena, Cal	1.07	Austin, Tex	1.50
Terre Haute, Ind	1.04	Everett, Wash	1.36
Mount Vernon, N. Y	.99	Fresno, Cal	1 29
Amsterdam, N. Y	.95	Pasadena, Cal	1.09
Fresno, Cal	.90	Springfield, Mo	1.17
Butte, Mont	.70	Terre Haute, Ind	1.15
Little Rock, Ark	.70	Mount Vernon, N. Y	1.23
Wichita, Kans	.69	Wichita, Kans	.95
Flint, Mich	.62	Jackson, Mich	.90
Kalamazoo, Mich	.59	Flint, Mich	.90
Huntington, W. Va	.55	Muskogee, Okla	.74
Springfield, Ohio	.51	Lorain, Ohio	.68
Muskogee, Okla	.50	Colorado Springs, Colo	.67
Colorado Springs, Colo	.50	Huntington, W. Va	.64
Elyria, Ohio	*.455*	Springfield, Ohio	.63
Lorain, Ohio	.35	Kalamazoo, Mich	.60
Austin, Tex	.33	*Elyria, Okla*	*.55¾*
		Little Rock, Ark	.50

Tax rate on each $100 estimated real valuation.

FOR SCHOOL PURPOSES.		FOR GENERAL CITY PURPOSES.	
Joliet, Ill	$1.25	Amsterdam, N. Y	$1.17
Cedar Rapids, Iowa	.98	Austin, Tex	1.13
Sioux City, Iowa	.81	Cedar Rapids, Iowa	1.00
Mount Vernon, N. Y	.79	Mount Vernon, N. Y	.98
Lincoln, Nebr	.74	Wichita, Kans	.95
Amsterdam, N. Y	.73	Jackson, Mich	.90
Wichita, Kans	.69	Flint, Mich	.90
Terre Haute, Ind	.62	Sioux City, Iowa	.83
Flint, Mich	.62	Fresno, Cal	.78
Joplin, Mo	.60	Lincoln, Nebr	.76
Kalamazoo, Mich	.59	Pasadena, Cal	.73
Springfield, Mo	.56	Terre Haute, Ind	.69
Fresno, Cal	.54	Lorain, Ohio	.68
Pasadena, Cal	.52	Joliet, Ill	.67
Springfield, Ohio	.51	Colorado Springs, Colo	.67
Colorado Springs, Colo	.50	Springfield, Ohio	.63
Jackson, Mich	.48	Kalamazoo, Mich	.60
Everett, Wash	.46	Joplin, Mo	.60
Elyria, Ohio	*.455*	Butte, Mont	.61
Huntington, W. Va	.44	Springfield, Mo	.59
Muskogee, Okla	.38	*Elyria, Ohio*	*.5575*
Little Rock, Ark	.35	Muskogee, Okla	.56
Lorain, Ohio	.35	Everett, Wash	.54
Austin, Tex	.25	Huntington, W. Va	.51
		Little Rock, Ark	.25

From the foregoing table it will be noted that the tax rate in Elyria, both on assessed and on estimated real valuation, is low when compared with the rate in other cities.

When compared with these cities Elyria has a little more than the average amount of wealth for each dollar of tax raised for school purposes.

By means of a questionnaire addressed to some city superintendents in different sections of the country it has been made possible to present fairly accurate data for a few cities regarding the amount of tax raised for school purposes per child in average daily attendance. The following table shows these facts for a list of cities selected at random:

Amount of taxes raised for school purposes per pupil.

Missoula, Mont	$81.21	Plainfield, N. J	$45.91
Lakewood, Ohio	73.11	*Elyria, Ohio*	*44.70*
Sioux Falls, S. Dak	68.54	Parkersburg, W. Va	44.64
Trinidad, Colo	57.37	Hutchinson, Kans	41.46
Morristown, N. J	52.42	Adrian, Mich	42.46
Keokuk, Iowa	52.00	Melrose, Mass	42.05
Fairmont, W. Va	51.80	Beaver Falls, Pa	41.28
East Chicago, Ind	51.59	Piqua, Ohio	41.06
Fargo, N. Dak	50.65	Greensburg, Pa	40.40
Hackensack, N. J	47.20	Warren, Ohio	39.61
Sandusky, Ohio	46.64	Lawrence, Kans	39.47
Boise, Idaho	46.61	Middleton, Ohio	39.02
Muscatine, Iowa	46.36		

In this list Elyria ranks below the median.

Again Elyria may be compared with other cities as to the cost per pupil based on average daily attendance on current expenses.[1]

Cost per pupil, 1915–16, for elementary and high school compared with that in certain other cities recognized as having good schools.[2]

Hibbing, Minn	$108.86	St. Cloud, Minn	$51.47
Montclair, N. J	83.00	Solvay, N. Y	50.70
Alhambra, Cal	79.33	Lincoln, Nebr	50.45
South Orange, N. J	73.24	East Chicago, Ind	50.10
Eveleth, Minn	69.35	Ann Arbor, Mich	49.39
Boise, Idaho	65.50	Nutley, N. J	48.93
Stockton, Cal	60.80	Fresno, Cal	48.18
Everett, Wash	58.84	Lewiston, Idaho	46.90
Alameda, Cal	58.84	*Elyria, Ohio*	*46.77*
Houghton, Mich	57.72	Beverley, Mass	47.13
Lead, S. Dak	57.59	Richmond, Ind	44.04
Bloomfield, N. J	56.99	Kenosha, Wis	42.97

When compared with these 22 representative school systems the cost per pupil in Elyria is low.

More evidence might be presented to show that comparatively Elyria is spending less than other cities that maintain good schools. The table on page 34 shows that salaries paid to teachers in Elyria are not high when compared with those in other cities.

From these comparative data and from observations made of school conditions in Elyria, the committee believe that school expenses in Elyria are too low. As a result of the limitations imposed by the law the board of education has found it necessary to discontinue seven kindergartens, one special school for backward and defective children, one playground supervisor, special teachers of music, drawing, physical training, sixth-grade manual training, and to reduce the time of the supervisor of penmanship to one-half time. It has also been necessary to crowd some of the high-school work and to omit the appropriation formerly made by the board of education to the city library, which has been rendering excellent service to the schools and to the city.

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[1] Current expenses include cost of salaries, supplies, and expenses for instruction and operation, and maintenance of school plants.

[2] The cities were selected before it was known what was the cost per pupil in each.

It is doubtful whether there are many persons in Elyria who think the school board has been extravagant. Some have thought that the addition of the technical high school was a mistake. For a discussion of this phase of the school system see page —, vocational education. That chapter shows the schools should have more, not less, work in industrial subjects.

The school board, the chamber of commerce, and others deplore the fact that so many activities of the schools had to be discontinued. It was only a question of which to eliminate. The school board's estimate for the year was $40,000 more than was allowed by the board of estimate. This was not allowed, because the city had reached its taxing limit of 15 mills.

The question arises: Does the board of estimate apportion a fair share of the taxes to the schools? The following table presents the percentage of the city funds apportioned to the schools in certain cities, and the comparison shows that the board of education of Elyria receives its just proportion of the tax receipts, when judged by the standards of other cities of the same class.

Percentage of city funds apportioned to schools.

	Per cent.
Fairmont, W. Va	0.64
Muscatine, Iowa	.59
Dubois, Pa	.58
Homestead, Pa	.54
Hackensack, N. J	.54
Parkersburg, W. Va	.54
Beaver Falls, Pa	.52
Meadville, Pa	.52
Bethlehem, Pa	.50
Lawrence, Kans	.49
Greensburg, Pa	.48
Marietta, Ohio	.47
Trinidad, Colo	.47
Warren, Ohio	.46
Hutchinson, Kans	.46
Piqua, Ohio	.45
Braddock, Pa	.45
Elyria, Ohio	*.45*
Ironwood, Mich	.45
Sioux Falls, S. Dak	.44
Morristown, N. J	.44
East Chicago, Ind	0.43
Missoula, Mont	.43
Winfield, Kans	.43
Goshen, Ind	.42
Adrian, Mich	.41
Emporia, Kans	.40
Spartanburg, S. C	.40
Tonawanda, N. Y	.39
Fargo, N. Dak	.38
Chickasha, Okla	.36
Lewiston, Idaho	.36
Boise, Idaho	.36
Bloomfield, N. J	.35
Melrose, Mass	.30
Selma, Ala	.30
Plainfield, N. J	.29
Athens, Ga	.25
Mankato, Minn	.24
Marshall, Tex	.23
Greenville, Miss	.19

In the median city 44 per cent of the city funds are for school purposes, in Elyria 45 per cent are for school purposes. It appears, therefore, that the schools in Elyria are receiving a fair share of the city funds.

The problem is, nevertheless, to obtain more money for the schools. The possible increase under the present law is only 0.045 mills. This slight increase, would, however, on the present valuation of $24,000,000 yield $10,800 additional. That would support the kindergartens or some of the other services of the schools that have been discontinued. A decrease of a half mill on the road tax would mean a few miles less of good roads, but if that half mill were applied to the schools it would mean much to the children of Elyria.

The question has been raised whether the attendance at the Elyria High School of pupils from outside the school district is not imposing a financial burden on the city. According to the laws of the State of Ohio no more shall be charged nonresident high-school pupils per capita than the amount ascertained by dividing the total expenses of conducting the school, exclusive of permanent improvements and repair, by the average monthly enrollment.

To arrive at the exact cost per pupil in the high school is difficult, since many items of expense for elementary and high schools have not been kept separate. Salaries for instruction and supervision, which constitute the greater portion of high-school expenditures, are known exactly, but the amount expended for fuel and supplies is not separately recorded. The total running expenses of the high school for the year 1915–16 was $34,923. The average monthly enrollment was 583. The cost per high-school pupil was therefore $59.90. During the past year the school board raised the high-school tuition from $50 to $59 per annum, or to approximately the cost per pupil based on average monthly enrollment. It is doubtful whether the board can legally charge much more. If elementary and high school accounts were kept separately, as they should be, the cost of running the high school might be known exactly.

The question may be raised as to whether property in Elyria is assessed at full value. If it is so assessed, values have not increased in nearly the same proportion as the population. In 1912 the average daily school attendance was 2,068, and in 1916 it was 2,595, or an increase of 25 per cent, which is probably the rate of increase in the population of Elyria. In 1912 the assessed valuation of the city was $22,315,460, and in 1916 it was $24,500,000, or an increase of only 9 per cent. In 1912 the amount of assessed wealth per child in average daily attendance was $10,790, and in 1916 it was $9,441, or a decrease of 12 per cent. These have been years of rapid increase of wealth throughout the United States and of great prosperity for Elyria. It is probable, therefore, that the wealth of the town has increased much more rapidly than the population. The assessment should be carefully examined to determine what properties are not assessed at full value. If the assessed valuation were increased only $1,000,000, the schools could at the present rate obtain about $5,000 more revenue, which would pay the salaries of the special supervisors and of others whose services have been discontinued. If the assessed valuation were increased, the rate for the road district and the city might possibly be lowered and the rate for schools increased to its highest limit. One method of obtaining more funds is to increase the assessed valuation.

The logical solution, however, of the problem of financing the city and the city school districts in Ohio is to repeal the present tax law and permit cities to levy more than 10 mills for current expenses. If the State legislature considers that city officials should not be empowered to levy more than 10 mills, it should at least permit the electors of a city to vote whether the tax rate can be more than this amount. The people of any city can surely be trusted not to tax themselves beyond their willingness to pay and should be permitted to support as generously as they will the schools for the education of their children.

Costs within the system.—When compared with 25 other cities, the ratio of the cost per pupil in high school to cost per pupil in the elementary grades is about the average, as may be seen from the following table:

Cost per pupil in high school to $1 of cost in elementary school.

Virginia, Minn	$3.37	Champaign, Ill	$1.67
Bloomfield, N. J	2.67	*Elyria, Ohio*	*1.66*
Ironwood, Mich	2.58	Beverly, Mass	1.65
East Chicago, Ind	2.34	Moline, Ill	1.60
Kenosha, Wis	2.33	Leavenworth, Kans	1.58
Redlands, Cal	2.30	Hackensack, N. J	1.57
Wausau, Wis	2.18	Attleboro, Mass	1.51
Ithaca, N. Y	2.12	Alameda, Cal	1.41
Rome, Ga	2.11	Gloucester, Mass	1.37
Winston-Salem, N. C	2.09	Burlington, Iowa	1.36
Long Beach, Cal	1.94	Danbury, Conn	1.22
Owensboro, Ky	1.85	Muncie, Ind	1.16
Bristol, Conn. (median)	1.81		

The generally accepted ratio is 2 to 1.

Elyria is spending less for instruction and more for maintenance than the median for 44 other cities of between 10,000 and 25,000 population, as may be noted from the following table, which shows the per cent each item of expenditure is of the whole:

	Elyria.	In 44 cities.
General control	3.6	4.5
Instruction	76.2	80.0
Maintenance and operation of plant	17.4	15.0
Auxiliary agencies, libraries, etc	2.8	.5
Total	100.0	100.0

For comparison of cost per high-school subject see page 112.

That there may be more definite data in the office of the superintendent of schools regarding costs, it is recommended that the clerk of the board keep his accounts to show unit costs.

The cost of fuel per 1,000 cubic feet in each building should be known. If it is costing much more to heat 1,000 cubic feet in one building than in another, an investigation should be made to discover the cause. If the current expenditure is more per pupil in one building than in another, why? These are some of the problems that a unit cost accounting system would present.

The following table contains comparisons of certain fiscal items in 1912 and 1916:

Comparison of fiscal items for five-year period ending August 31, 1916.

	1912	1916	Per cent of increase.
School tax rate (mills)	3.76	4.95	32
Average daily attendance	2,068	2,595	25
Total expenditure	$125,005	$143,673	15
Conducting schools (current expenses)	$80,937	$121,373	50
Interest paid	$6,491	$21,539	232
Bonded indebtedness paid	$6,000	$7,500	25
Revenue from local taxes	$78,607	$116,004	47
Revenue from State school fund	$6,138	$8,499	38
Revenue from other sources	$8,962	$10,706	20
Valuation of property	$22,315,460	$24,500,000	9
Wealth per child in average daily attendance	$10,790	$9,441	[1]12
Cost per pupil for conducting schools based on average daily attendance, excluding capital outlays and debt service	$39	$47	19

[1] Decrease.

THE SCHOOL BOARD.

City boards of education in the State of Ohio are organized under a general statute which provides that in cities of less than 50,000 population the board of education shall consist of not less than three nor more than five members, elected at large. The law provides that members of school boards shall be elected in odd years for a term of four years. In Elyria the board consists of five members, the term of two members expiring at the end of one biennial period and three at the end of the next. County, State, and National elections are held in even years. The purpose is to divorce school and municipal elections, so far as possible, from the dominating influence of some strong State or National candidate or issue, so that the local offices may be filled with men selected because of their qualifications rather than because of their party affiliations.

A better provision would be for five members elected at large for a term of five years with a member elected each year at a special school election. Under the present provision it is possible for three new members to be elected at the same time who might at once entirely reverse the policy of the board and of the superintendent. It usually takes about a year for a new member of a city school board to learn what the function of a school board is. By electing one member a year he will, if a new member, have an opportunity of becoming acquainted with school conditions by the time another new member is elected. This plan is considered safer, since it prevents sudden breaks in the policy of a board and makes continuous development more certain.

Powers and duties.—The State law gives the school board full and complete power over the schools. It has no power, however, to levy taxes nor to fix the amount of money to be appropriated; but after the funds have been appropriated to the school board, it has full power to use these funds for school purposes as in its judgment seems best.

Relation to the superintendent.—A most commendable feature in the administration of the Elyria schools is that the school board places full responsibility on the superintendent.

Until recently the school board has employed a director of schools, as the State law permits. This office was responsible directly to the school board and not to the board through the superintendent. The law empowered him to appoint, subject to the approval of the board, all employees except teachers, supervisors, principals, superintendent of instruction, and clerk of the board, to have the care and custody of all property of the school district, real and personal (except moneys), to oversee the construction of buildings in the process of erection and repairs, to advertise for bids, and purchase all supplies authorized by the board. By granting the director these duties and making him responsible directly to the board there were two executive officers—the superintendent of instruction and the director, or business manager.

When the office of director of schools was established the thought of the school board no doubt was that there is no relation between the educational and business matters of the board. There can be no such divorcement. The purpose of the school is to educate children. Every phase of the administration of the schools must have this end in view. The superintendent should have general supervision of even the purchase of supplies and the erection of buildings.

The Elyria school board has therefore wisely placed the entire management of the schools in the hands of the superintendent. There are no longer two executive heads. The director has been retained as clerk of the board and as business agent. His duties are still practically the same as they were as director, but he reports to the board through the superintendent and is subject to the orders of the superintendent in business matters, just as principals and supervisors are in matters of instruction.

The members of the school board say that they employ a superintendent to conduct the schools, that they give him much freedom, and hold him responsible. The minutes of the board for the past three years were examined, and this statement is borne out by the fact that the superintendent's name is frequently mentioned as making this or that recommendation. He has recommended the election of teachers, changes in the course of study, transfer of teachers, and the adoption of textbooks. This policy of the board in giving full power to the superintendent in these matters is in accord with the present tendency in school administration. It would be much easier for a superintendent who has no other interest than that of holding his position or of drawing his salary to permit the school board to select teachers and textbooks on its own initiative, but the superintendent who wants to secure results and to earn his salary is willing to assume all the responsibility.

A point worthy of commendation is that individual board members do not listen to the complaints of parents and others, but refer them to the superintendent. If the complainant is not satisfied with the decision of the superintendent, he may appeal to the school board as a board. This is the only workable policy for a school board to adopt. Individual members of school boards should never attempt to settle difficulties between pupils and teachers or parents and teachers, nor to dictate policies to teachers or principals.

The school board holds a regular meeting once a month. During the past three years there has been, on an average, one special meeting each month. The length of the board meetings is usually from one to two hours, sometimes more than two hours. Every important proposition is discussed at length. Often there occurs in the minutes of the board the sentence, "After a thorough discussion of the question the roll was called." Though there are several standing committees, the reports of these committees are usually discussed in board meeting.

There are on the Elyria school board the following committees: Finance, buildings and grounds, sanitation and hygiene, textbooks, advisory. It is doubtful whether a board of five members that employs expert executives needs any standing committees. However, from a study of the minutes of the board and from conversation with members of the board and its clerk, there is no evidence that these committees have undertaken to do the work for which the board employs an executive officer; nor is there any evidence that these committees have furnished the board with information that could not have been provided by the superintendent of schools.

The budget should be prepared by the superintendent and submitted to the entire board for its careful study. The clerk of the board should, of course, assist in preparing the budget. The superintendent and the business agent should report to the board the condition of buildings and grounds and have authority to make all needed repairs without having to consult a committee. The superintendent should collect information through the school physician and the school nurse regarding the sanitation of the buildings and report to the board.

Textbooks should be adopted by the board only on the recommendation of the superintendent. He can recommend to a board of five as well as to a committee of three.

Every committee could be abolished without lessening the efficiency of the board as a legislative body. The school board is small and should act as a committee of the whole. Each member of the board should be informed upon every phase of the school work, and not only upon one phase, if he is to vote intelligently upon all measures. Though there has apparently been no abuse of the committee organization of the Elyria school board, there are no valid reasons for its continuance.

The electors of Elyria have, as a rule, elected men and women as school board members who are well known for their interest in public affairs or for their ability as business managers. The present board is composed of four men and one woman. They have shown their interest in education by giving their time and attention to the schools, often at a sacrifice of their own private business interests.

ELEMENTARY TEACHERS.

The generally recognized educational and professional standard for elementary teachers is four years' high-school work and two years' normal-school work. When measured by this standard the schools of Elyria fall short. The amount of schooling the elementary teachers of Elyria have had beyond the eighth grade averages only 4.8 years, including all attendance in high schools, State normal schools, city normal courses, summer schools, and extension courses.

The following table shows the number of years' attendance beyond the eighth grade on the part of the several teachers:

2 to 3 years	3 to 4 years	4 to 5 years	5 to 6 years	6 to 7 years	7 to 8 years
3	3	29	20	4	2

Only 10 elementary teachers have had two years' professional work beyond the high school, 24 one year's work, and 15 of the latter number have had but little more than the work offered in the one-year city normal course, a term at a summer school or an extension course. Those who have not had the city normal course or who have not graduated from a regular normal school have usually had two or three terms of summer school work and several years' extension work.

The following table shows how Elyria ranks with 23 other cities in respect to the average number of years' schooling beyond the eighth grade:

Average number of years of schooling beyond the eighth grade.

Cities.	Population, 1910.	Years' schooling beyond elementary grades.	Cities.	Population, 1910.	Years' schooling beyond elementary grades.
Norfolk, Nebr	6,000	6.5	Aurora, Ill	30,000	5.4
Bozeman, Mont	5,107	6.4	Leavenworth, Kans	19,000	5.4
Morgan Park, Ill	4,000	6.3	Webster Groves, Mo	7,000	5.2
Whiting, Ind	6,587	6.0	Mishawaka, Ind	12,000	5.2
Winnetka, Ill	3,000	6.0	Noblesville, Ind	5,000	4.9
Gallipolis, Ohio	5,560	6.0	Rockford, Ill	45,000	4.9
Boonville, Mo	4,252	5.8	Joliet, Ill	35,000	4.8
Clifton, Ariz	4,000	5.7	*Elyria, Ohio*	*14,000*	*4.8*
Douglas, Ariz	6,000	5.6	South Bend, Ind	53,000	4.8
Oak Park, Ill	19,000	5.6	San Antonio, Tex	96,000	4.6
Russell, Kans	2,000	5.6	Mount Carroll, Ill	7,000	4.7
East Chicago, Ind	19,000	5.5	Granite City, Ill	10,000	4.3

Measured by the standards maintained in a majority of these cities Elyria ranks low, falling in the lower fourth, or seven-tenths of a year less than the median and one year less than the upper quartile.

As a further comparison the following table, showing the per cent of years' attendance beyond the eighth grade on the part of the elementary teachers of Elyria and of 24 cities in Arizona is presented:

Per cent of attendance beyond the eighth grade by elementary teachers.

Teachers.	Less than 1 year.	1 to 2 years.	2 to 3 years.	3 to 4 years.	4 to 5 years.	5 to 6 years.	6 to 7 years.	7 to 8 years.	8 years.	More than 8 years.
Per cent of Elyria teachers	0	0	4.9	4.9	47.5	32.8	6.6	3.3		
Per cent of teachers in 24 Arizona cities.	0.4	1.6	5.5	3.9	11.3	22.6	37.6	8.8	4.1	4.1

Only 9.9 per cent of the teachers of Elyria have attended school six or more years beyond the eighth grade; 54.6 per cent of the city teachers of Arizona have attended school that length of time. If it is possible for cities in a new State like Arizona to have standards so high that more than half the teachers have had six or more years' schooling beyond the eighth grade, the same should be possible for a city like Elyria in an old State like Ohio.

The old idea that teachers are born, not made, has nothing to justify it except the fact that some persons are born with an aptitude for teaching just as some are born with an aptitude for law or medicine. No one would advocate permitting any person to practice medicine without special training. The teacher is no more "born" than the lawyer, the doctor, or the engineer.

Years of experience of Elyria teachers.

	Years of experience.													
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11-15	16-20	21-25	26 or more.
Number of teachers.....	0	6	7	4	2	2	0	2	2	2	19	9	2	4
Per cent of teachers.....	0	9.8	11.4	6.5	3.3	3.3	0	3.3	3.3	3.3	31.2	14.7	3.3	6.5

When compared with 27 other cities Elyria ranks high with respect to the experience of its teachers, as is shown by the following table, ranking third with 2.1 years more than the median.

Average number of years of experience by teachers of certain cities.

	Years.
Greensburg, Ind	13.0
Morgan Park, Ill	12.5
Elyria, Ohio	*11.3*
Rockford, Ill	10.9
Winnetka, Ill	10.8
Oak Park, Ill	10.7
Boonville, Mo	10.3
Junction City, Kans	10.1
Joliet, Ill	9.9
Russell, Kans	9.9
Mishawaka, Ind	9.7
De Kalb, Ill	9.5
Aurora, Ill	9.3
Leavenworth, Kans	9.2
Mount Carroll, Ill	8.4
Gary, Ind	8.2
Harvey, Ill	8.0
Webster Groves, Mo	7.5
Norfolk, Nebr	7.0
East Chicago, Ind	6.9
Granite City, Ill	6.9
South Bend, Ind	6.7
Noblesville, Ind	6.2
Whiting, Ind	5.8
Maple Lake, Minn	5.2
Bonner Springs, Kans	3.7

The following table shows the number and per cent of elementary teachers who have taught in the city of Elyria their first year, second year, etc.

Years taught in Elyria by elementary teachers of Elyria.

	Years of experience in Elyria.													
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11-15	16-20	21-25	26 or more.
Number of teachers....	7	8	8	2	3	3	2	2	2	1	14	4	2	4
Per cent of teachers....	11.4	13.1	13.1	3.2	4.9	4.9	3.2	3.2	3.2	1.6	22.8	6.4	3.2	6.5

Of the 61 elementary teachers, 24 have taught in the city of Elyria 11 or more years. The average tenure is 7.8 years. The power of the Elyria schools to hold teachers is good when compared with 24 other cities, as shown in the following table:

Average tenure of elementary teachers.

	Years taught in city.
Aurora, Ill	9.1
Rockford, Ill	9.1
Joliet, Ill	8.7
Leavenworth, Kans	8.0
Elyria, Ohio	7.8
Greensburg, Ind	7.6
Morgan Park, Ind	7.0
Mishawaka, Ind	6.6
Mount Olive, Ill	6.6
Russell, Kans	6.5
Winnetka, Ill	6.4
Mount Carroll, Ill	6.2
Junction City, Kans	5.8
Noblesville, Ind	5.5
Bonnerville, Mo	5.4
De Kalb, Ill	5.2
Granite City, Ill	4.2
South Bend, Ind	4.0
East Chicago, Ind	4.0
San Antonio, Tex	3.5
Webster Groves, Mo	3.2
Bonner Springs, Kans	2.4
Norfolk, Nebr	2.0
Maple Lake, Minn	1.4

The teachers of Elyria average two more years of experience in the same city than those in the median city of the group. The average amount of experience of teachers before entering the Elyria schools is 3.5 years.

This amount of experience may offset to a certain extent the lack of professional training. On the other hand, much experience may be a handicap to some teachers. Experience alone does not make a teacher. Experience counts for but little unless there is a background of knowledge of subject matter and of the best methods of presenting it. Then, too, experience gained by teachers in a rural school without supervision counts for but little in the improvement of teaching power. Such teachers may have succeeded as disciplinarians and classroom organizers. Some even without professional training may employ good methods of teaching, but the only safe plan is to engage teachers who have had professional training.

Salaries.—The salaries of elementary teachers in Elyria are not high when compared with those paid in 32 other representative cities in different sections of the country.

The following table shows the median salaries of elementary teachers in 33 cities of between 10,000 and 25,000 population (1912–13).

Median salaries of elementary teachers.

Alameda, Cal	$1,110
Missoula, Mont	1,080
Fresno, Cal	950
Boise, Idaho	900
Great Falls, Mont	900
Reno, Nev	900
Cheyenne, Wyo	840
Phoenix, Ariz	810
Gary, Ind	800
Plainfield, N. J	800
Morristown, N. J	775
Aberdeen, Wash	770
Oak Park, Ill	750
Hackensack, N. J	750
Kearney, N. J	750
Trinidad, Colo	750
Norwood, Ohio	740
Fargo, N. Dak	$713
East Chicago, Ind	700
Ansonia, Conn	700
Elyria, Ohio	[1] *700*
Ann Arbor, Mich	700
Sandusky, Ohio	675
Salem, Oreg	675
Bellville, Ill	650
Muncie, Ind	640
Moline, Ill	630
Marshalltown, Iowa	600
Dunkirk, N. Y	600
West Chester, Pa	600
Kenosha, Wis	585
St. Cloud, Minn	563
Alexandria, Va	550

The median salary in Elyria in 1912–13 was $600; now it is $700. If the median salaries in the other cities have increased in like proportion, Elyria ranks low in comparison. The minimum salary paid at present is $500, the maximum $700, except teaching principals, who receive the salary of the grade they are teaching, plus $12.50 per room used.

When compared with salaries of city officials in Elyria the salaries of teachers are low, as may be noted from the following table:

Salaries of city officials in Elyria.

Chief of police	$1,500
Captain of police	1,120
Patrolmen, class A	1,120
Patrolmen, class B	1,060
Patrolmen, class C	1,000
Desk sergeant	1,000
Chief of fire department	1,500
Assistant chief, fire department	1,240
Captain, fire department	1,180
Lieutenants, fire department	$1,150
Master mechanic, fire department	1,240
Engineers, fire department	1,180
Firemen, class A	1,120
Firemen, class B	1,060
Firemen, class C	1,000
City-hall janitor	840
Cemetery superintendent	900

Since these tables were compiled the salaries of city officials have been increased in some cases as much as $140 a year. Salaries of teachers have been increased $47.50 a year.

The salaries and wages paid the city officials and employees are by no means large. The point is that teachers are not paid enough in comparison. A teacher must spend five or six years preparing for her work and expend from $50 to $100 every few years attending school. She must attend educational meetings, and purchase books and magazines. Her salary should be at least as much as that of a policeman.

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[1] In 1916–17.

The minimum wage of day laborers for city work in Elyria is $3 a day; counting 180 days to the year the minimum for teachers is $2.78; counting 300 days to the year it is $1.67. The maximum for day laborers is $5 per day; counting 180 days to a year the maximum for teachers is $3.87; counting 300 days to a year the maximum is $2.34.

It is also interesting and significant to compare salaries of teachers with those of janitors. The janitors are not overpaid, but the teachers are underpaid.

Salaries of schoolhouse janitors in Elyria:

Janitor A	$1,260
Janitor B	1,020
Janitor C	990
Janitor D	924
Janitor E	840
Janitor F	840

The median salary of janitors in the elementary schools is $975, or $275 more than for elementary teachers. The highest salary paid a principal of elementary schools is $887.50, or $372.50 less than the highest-paid janitor, and only $47.50 more than the lowest-paid janitor.

Promotion of teachers.—The plan of promoting teachers in Elyria is to give an increase of $50 a year until the maximum of $700 is reached. A teacher brought in from another school at a salary of $650, say, would receive but one increase. Teachers employed first at $500 a year would receive four increases. After a teacher has taught three or four years in a school system and there is but little or no prospect of further increase she is likely to become discontented and to seek a position elsewhere. If there is a tendency on the part of the teaching corps to seek other positions, the result will be that the better teachers will secure positions elsewhere and the poorer ones will be left.

A salary schedule should be prepared with a minimum salary sufficiently high to secure the services of the best normal-school graduates, or normal-school graduates with one or two years' successful experience. The maximum salary should be sufficiently high so that there may not cease to be an increase after three or four years' service in the Elyria schools. The salary schedule should provide for three or four classes, so that it will take anyone beginning in the lowest class from six to eight years to reach the maximum, and increase in salary should have some relation to proven ability in teaching.

Increase in pay should be based on experience, additional preparation, and merit. A teacher who attends summer school should, as a rule, have a larger increase in salary than a teacher of equal ability and experience who does not. The attendance at summer school may fairly be taken as evidence of interest and of desire to improve. A teacher who does not improve after several years of experience should not be given a larger salary, and if she makes no effort to do better work, she should not be reelected. No teacher can afford not to attend school every three or four years, and no school board can afford to employ a teacher who does not attempt to improve. The board should, however, provide substantial salary increases for all teachers who are making further preparation and who are growing in efficiency. No others should be retained.

The teachers' training class.—"At the opening of each school year a class of high-school graduates is organized to secure the professional training and experience required by law of all who would become public-school teachers." Five girls comprised the class of 1916–17, although at the time of the survey only three were in attendance. These received instruction in school management, methods of teaching, agriculture, physiology, and physical culture; reviews in arithmetic, grammar, geography, and history; 10 lessons each in music, drawing, and penmanship; and practice teaching. This work, together with a six weeks' course at the Kent Normal School, entitles the students to a year's normal-school credit.

Two days a week are given to classroom work and three to observation and practice teaching in the schools. The students are also used as substitutes in the city schools, for which they draw regular pay. The work in agriculture is taken with the high-school class, the students attending on their classroom days. The pedagogical work is given by the supervisor of primary grades.

If this training class fed its graduates directly into the city schools, there would be no hesitation in recommending that it be discontinued; but as it does not, it must be judged merely as a teachers' training class, sanctioned by the State, for the purpose of preparing teachers for the rural schools. The education given is meager, to be sure, but it is better than nothing. The graduates usually do their first regular teaching in rural or small city schools, and some of them go on to complete the full normal-school course. Many, however, return to the Elyria schools as teachers before completing the normal course. This should be discontinued.

The classroom work could be strengthened by letting more teachers take part in giving it. One or two of the elementary-school principals and perhaps the superintendent might conduct classes. This would not only give the students more varied instruction, but would also react favorably on those who give the work.

SUPERVISION.

SUPERVISION OF INSTRUCTION.

One of the great problems in Elyria is how to provide effective and economical supervision of instruction in the elementary grades. The grade buildings have from 3 to 13 teachers. There are in the Franklin Building 13 teachers; in the Jefferson, 9; in the Gates, 10; in the Hamilton, 9; in the McKinley, 11; in the Ridge, 6; and in the Garford, 3. The principals of the Garford and the Ridge School teach all the time; the principals of the other schools have an hour a day for supervision of instruction and for matters of routine. A substitute teacher is employed to teach an hour a day for these principals.

It is evident that the principals can do but little supervising in one hour. Since each principal has the same period each day free for supervision, she can observe only the teaching of the subjects that are on the program at her free period, unless the teacher visited is requested to change her program. If the present plan of supervision is continued, the programs should be changed so that the principals may observe the teaching of different subjects.

Most of the time of the principals is, however, so taken up in routine affairs that supervision of instruction is a secondary matter. Among the details attended to by the principals are: Investigation of cases reported for discipline; talks with pupils who are delinquent in their work; reporting cases of illness of children to school nurse; reporting absentees to truant officer; talks with parents by telephone; answering telephone calls from main office and from parents; making out reports; ordering and distributing supplies; keeping savings-bank books; writing notes to parents; assisting parent-teachers' associations. The principals while teaching are often interrupted by children sent from other rooms for information regarding some phase of school work, by telephone calls, or by persons coming to the door to ask where a child or teacher may be found. One principal reports that she has had as many as 10 interruptions during a recitation. With all these details to look after, no time is left for supervision. Some of these details, however, could be attended to before and after school hours. Arrangements should be made so that a principal while teaching will not be interrupted by telephone calls. It is suggested that all calls be made through the superintendent's office, and that no principals be called while teaching.

Practically all the supervision of instruction must be done by the superintendent and the primary supervisor. Heretofore there have been supervisors of music, of art, and of penmanship. As stated elsewhere in the report, the services of the supervisors of music and art were discontinued, owing to a lack of funds; only the supervisor of penmanship is retained.

A supervisor of music and a supervisor of art are no doubt necessary in a school system of the size of that of Elyria, but it is very doubtful whether the school board is justified in employing a supervisor of penmanship. If results in this subject are to be obtained, the teacher must obtain them. A lesson once in two weeks by a supervisor who does nothing more than teach accomplishes but little, if any, more than the regular teacher can accomplish. Every child writes much of the time in school, and if the teacher does not require the child to write well in his regular work, a weekly drill by a supervisor will accomplish little. The principles of the system of penmanship used in the schools are easily acquired. It is then a matter of attention to the daily written work and to a few minutes of drill exercises.

The need of the following supervisors is recommended in other sections of this report: A supervisor of manual arts, teaching part time; a supervisor of home economics, teaching part time; a supervisor of home gardening, who should be the teacher of agriculture in the high school; a playground supervisor; a supervisor of music; and a supervisor of art.

Many teachers need instruction in the teaching of music and art. The position of supervisorship of these two subjects should be restored at once. If, however, the tax rate can not be increased or more funds provided, provision should be made for instruction in music and art by departmentalizing the work through the grades sufficiently to permit the teaching of music and drawing by special teachers and the other subjects by the regular classroom teacher. This plan saves the overhead charge for supervisors. The regular classroom teacher would have her subjects reduced by two, thus allowing her more time for the preparation of her lessons in other subjects. At present some teachers exchange work, teacher A, for example, taking teacher B's pupils for music, while teacher B takes teacher A's pupils for spelling. This plan could be extended so that one teacher in a building would teach all the music and another all the art.

The plan for general supervision provides for supervision by the superintendent of schools, a primary supervisor, and the building principals each for an hour a day.

With small buildings it is apparent that the cost of supervision would be excessive if each building were in charge of a supervising principal wholly relieved of teaching.

Two plans for more effective supervision may be suggested for Elyria: (1) A supervising principal for a group of buildings or (2) a primary and upper-grade supervisor with a head teacher or teaching principal in each building.

By the former plan three group principals would be necessary. The Hamilton and Franklin Schools would form one group with 22 teachers; the Gates and Jefferson Schools another group with 19 teachers; and the Ridge, the McKinley, and the Garford Schools the third group with 20 teachers. The additional cost for these three supervising principals, who should be trained supervisors, would be approximately $4,800 a year.

The latter plan—a supervisor of primary and of grammar grades—would require only two supervisors at a minimum cost of $3,200, or somewhat less for principals for a group of buildings. From the standpoint of the improvement of teachers in service, the latter plan is no doubt the better of the two, because supervising principals for groups of buildings often have so many petty problems that they fail to supervise. There is this advantage, however, they are in a position to be the leaders of the community interests in their respective districts. They would not, however, devote all their time to the improvement of teaching as the grade supervisors relieved from all trivial affairs would do, for the latter could devote all their thought, skill, and energy toward unifying and vitalizing instruction throughout the entire system. All teachers in every part of the city would be working with the same end in view. If there are supervising principals, there may be as many aims as there are principals. Standards will be higher in one district than in another, depending upon the ideas of the supervisor of the district.

It is recommended that the position of supervisor of primary grades be retained and that the position of supervisor of intermediate and grammar grades be established. These supervisors should be persons of good general and professional education and proven skill in teaching and special training for the work of supervision.

If, however, it is thought that financial conditions in Elyria will not at present permit the employment of both these supervisors, it is recommended that the position of primary supervisor be continued.

If the recommendation on page 122 that there be six years in the elementary grades and three years in the junior high school be adopted; one supervisor for both the kindergarten and the first six grades and a supervising principal for the junior high school would provide all the general supervision needed. It is recommended that this be the plan to be adopted.

The question arises, What would remain for a superintendent to do if a primary and an upper grade supervisor were employed? In a city the size of Elyria the duties of a superintendent are multifarious. He must decide upon the policies of the school, keep the community in touch with the schools, address different organizations in the city on educational or other topics, make a careful study of textbooks, visit schools in other cities, study the qualifications of teachers employed, visit teachers who are applying for positions in Elyria, consult with teachers and others, hold teachers' meetings. These are only a few of the things that make demands upon the time of a superintendent in a city the size of Elyria. His visits to the classrooms of 100 teachers must necessarily be brief. Even if he were to give his whole time to supervision he could not spend more than five or six hours during the year in a teacher's classroom. In addition to classroom visitation there must be the personal conference after each visit.

If there were a primary and a grammar grade supervisor or only one for all grades, the superintendent should not make any fewer visits to the classrooms. He would visit classrooms and if he noted any teacher that needed help he would assign the supervisor the task of improving the instruction of that teacher, or if the supervisor by means of objective tests or even by observation discovered that a teacher is not obtaining good results, the superintendent could by visitation ascertain the cause and suggest methods for improvement. Supervision would not be haphazard, but more nearly on a scienific basis than at present. There should be more than mere inspection and observation. There should be from time to time a careful testing of results. In a city the size of Elyria the superintendent himself can not do much of this kind of work—not enough to be effective.

In brief, the schools of Elyria are undersupervised, as the committee has found by observing and testing classroom instruction. As compared with other cities the cost of supervision in Elyria is low. For the year 1915-16 the cost of teaching in Elyria was $87,587, or 72.16 per cent of the total current expenses; supervision, $4,877.07, or 4.01 per cent of the total current expenses. In 44 cities of between 10,000 and 25,000 population the median per cent for teachers' salaries is 66.76; for supervision 9.17. For the present year, since the services of two supervisors have been dispensed with, less than 4 per cent will be spent in supervision in Elyria.

HEALTH SUPERVISION.

The school nurse.—An efficient school nurse is one of the admirable features of the school system in Elyria. Regular visits are made by her to each building and home visitations in case a pupil is out of school with illness.

Baths are fitted up in three buildings, and are used by the pupils under her direction. The children are weighed once a month, and careful records are kept by the nurse of their physical well-being. All pupils who need medical advice can consult the school physician, who is one of the city's leading practitioners. Operations at the hospitals can be arranged for by him at the suggestion of the school nurse, and no charge is made for consultation or for treatment.

The following report of the school nurse shows the extent of the work done by her department:

Number of children examined since October 1, 2,229.

Number having physical defects:

Defective teeth	642	Defective vision	144
Enlarged tonsils	188	Anemia and malnutrition	85
Adenoids	202	Orthopedic defects	18
Defective hearing	69		

Parents are made aware of physical defects in their children by notices of physical defects, referring them to their family physician, dentist, or hospital dispensary. If no attention is paid, the school nurse makes home calls.

Defects corrected since October 1, 105. This does not include defective teeth corrections except indigent cases taken personally to the dentist. Other corrections will be noted on the pupils' health card at second examination.

According to my regular schedule each building is visited three to four hours each week, as soon as school opens. Teachers send in any children that may need treatment or dressings. Regular routine examinations begin afterwards. Each child is examined twice a year. Every child brings his or her health record card and observations are made while the child faces a good light, near a window. When the child opens his mouth the condition of teeth and mucous membrane are noticed. The tonsils are inspected. Mouth breathing or signs of nasal obstruction are noted. Ears are observed for impacted cerumen or any discharge. Eyes are inspected for any inflammatory diseases. The hearing and vision are then tested; the hearing by means of the whispered voice test and the vision by means of the Snellen test cards. Any defect found is noted on the pupils' health card for future reference. If the defect is a marked one, a cross is made after the defect and it is called to the parents' attention for correction. Health talks are frequently given in the classroom, especially on dental hygiene. Certain grades are inspected for head lice and skin diseases. Home visits are made in the afternoons when not at any school. One afternoon a week is usually set apart to take children to the specialist, physician, or hospital.

Enlargement of this department needed.—The nurse quite evidently had too many calls on her time to do full justice to all the children under her care. An assistant, trained in the service, is recommended for this department.

SCHOOL POPULATION AND PROGRESS THROUGH THE GRADES.

According to the school census[1] taken in 1916, there are in Elyria 4,561 children from 6 to 21 years of age. The enrollment in the public schools is 2,614, and in the parochial schools 651, making the total number of children between 6 and 21 years of age attending public and parochial schools 3,265. To this number should be added those who are attending business school, normal school, and college. Just what this number is is not known, but a conservative estimate would place it at about 100. There are, therefore, approximately 1,200 children between the ages of 6 and 21 years not in school. Some of this number have graduated from high school and gone to work, others have left school to go to work at 16 or 17 years of age and before graduating.

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[1] The school census was made several months before the enrollment in this report was compared with the school census.

According to the school census there are in the city 3,248 children between the ages of 6 and 16 years. There are 2,826 children of this age in the public and parochial schools, leaving 422 unaccounted for. The enrollment of children from 8 to 14 years of age is 1,848, while the census shows 1,825 children of this age in the city. It is therefore safe to assume that practically every child between the ages of 8 and 14 years of age is enrolled in school. There is no definite way of knowing whether this is the case without a continuous census and without comparing the school enrollment with the census.

The attendance of the children enrolled in the elementary schools is good, as is shown by the following table:

Number of children in each school who attended from 1 to 90 days during the first half of the school term.

Days.	Schools.							
	Gates.	Ridge.	Garford.	Franklin.	Jefferson.	McKinley.	Hamilton.	Total.
1-10	2	0	1	2	1	6	7	19
11-15	2	1	0	3	2	6	3	17
16-20	6	6	1	4	2	4	0	23
21-25	2	2	0	4	4	3	2	17
26-30	0	0	1	4	3	5	0	13
31-35	6	2	0	5	2	2	1	18
36-40	2	1	0	4	2	1	2	12
41-45	3	4	1	8	1	5	6	28
46-50	2	1	0	2	1	2	1	9
51-55	3	4	0	5	1	4	0	17
56-60	11	7	1	7	4	3	1	34
61-65	7	2	2	12	4	6	3	36
66-70	7	3	1	12	8	8	10	49
71-75	11	7	3	41	15	17	9	103
76-80	29	16	2	53	17	31	24	172
81-85	72	35	21	89	54	54	47	372
86-90	187	113	56	208	187	257	210	1,218
Total	352	204	90	463	308	414	326	2,157
Per cent attending more than—								
80 days	73.5	72.5	85.5	64.1	78.2	75.1	78.8	73.7
85 days	53.1	55.3	62.2	44.9	60.7	62.0	64.4	56.5

Some schools maintain better attendance than others. The comparatively poor attendance at the Franklin school is explained by the fact that many foreign children attend that school. Unless there is sickness among them, the foreign children should attend as well as any others. It may be necessary to call upon the attendance officer oftener than the other schools do, but it is the function of an attendance officer to keep children in regular attendance. The law does not permit irregular attendance of foreign children any more than it does of American children. The fact that the foreign population is continually shifting may account for the low percentage of children in Franklin school who attended more than 80 days during the first half year.

It is noted, too, that attendance in some rooms is almost perfect, while in other rooms in the same building with children from the same environment the attendance is poor. Evidently some teachers know how to secure attendance better than others. The teacher who keeps a live school has but little difficulty in securing regular attendance.

But there are always some parents who must be compelled to send their children regularly. An attendance officer is employed part time for this purpose. In a city the size of Elyria it is scarcely possible to enforce the compulsory law with only part-time service of one officer. This officer, when interviewed by a member of the survey committee, stated that there is enough work to keep one person busy the entire day for five days in the week. This does not mean that there is much truancy. The chief duty of an attendance officer is to visit parents who are inclined to keep their children out of school to run errands or for occasional work. If the attendance officer had no other duty than that of looking up cases of truancy, he would have but little to do. Though he reports 121 cases of truancy for a period of eight months, only 6 of these were serious enough to refer to the probation officer. The other cases may be classed as "hookey cases," a sort of lapsing for a day into freedom from artificial classroom restraint.

The following table presents the report submitted by the attendance officer for a year, the months of September and October being omitted because no attendance officer was employed during those two months:

Attendance officer's report.

Items.	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	November.	December.
Absence caused by—								
Sickness	6	5	7	15	16	14	12	14
Kept out by parents	8	6	10	12	31	49	17	7
Truancy	7	3	8	2	21	50	17	13
Late at school	2							
Left to work	2	6		1	1			
Poverty	2	1	4	3	10	5		2
Left city			2	1	3	4	2	2
Working without permits			5					
Referred to probation officer				4	2			
Visits	27	21	37	34	84	122	59	40

The enforcement of the attendance law would be made easier if the school enrollment at the beginning of the term were checked with the school census. No use is made of the school census as a means of locating children not in school. One of the most useful factors in a compulsory-attendance law is the school census. This census should be taken by the attendance officer just before school opens in September. The enrollment list in public and parochial schools should, by the close of the first week of school, be compared with the census list to see what children are not in school. The attendance officer should then ascertain why those not in school have not enrolled and should take steps to secure the enrollment of all those who are of the compulsory school age.

The attendance officer should keep a permanent census, after he has once made up a complete list of all the children in the city. Whenever children move into the city their names and addresses should be placed in the census list, and whenever children move out of the city their names should be taken from the list. This can be done easily if a card system is used.

It is recommended that the school board employ an attendance officer on full time; that he take the school census, and that he compare the enrollment lists in public and parochial schools with the school census for the purpose of determining what children are not in school.

The Elyria schools hold children in school to a later age than many other schools do. The number enrolled at each age is practically the same up to 16 years, as may be noted from the following table:

Distribution of pupils by age, June 1, 1917.

Age.	Number of pupils.	Per cent of total.	Age.	Number of pupils.	Per cent of total.
6 years	190	7.2	15 years	182	6.9
7 years	233	8.8	16 years	183	6.9
8 years	243	9.2	17 years	117	4.4
9 years	258	9.8	18 years	63	2.3
10 years	242	8.8	19 years	27	1.0
11 years	221	8.4	20 years	3	....
12 years	222	8.4	21 years	2	....
13 years	228	8.6			
14 years	218	8.3	Total	2,632	100.0

The holding power by grades is comparatively good. The following table shows distribution of enrollment by grades:

Distribution of pupils by grades, September, 1916.

Grade.	Enrollment.	Per cent of total.	Grade.	Enrollment.	Per cent of total.
Elementary.			*High school.*		
1	378	14.2	IX	233	8.7
2	323	12	X	152	5.6
3	270	10	XI	135	5
4	280	10.4	XII	78	2.8
5	242	9			
6	218	8.1	Total high	598	22.1
7	185	6.9			
8	187	6.9	Total elementary and high	2,681	100.0
Total	2,083	77.9			

Data were collected to ascertain the number of children under age, of normal age, and over age for their respective grades. The ages were taken as of June 1, 1917. Children in the first B grade from 6½ to 7½ years of age are considered of normal age; all 7½ or more years of age in this grade, as over age; all less than 6½, as under age. In the first A grade, children from 7 to 8 years of age are classed as of normal age; all 8 or more years of age, as over age; and all less than 7 years of age, as under age.

This report on retardation[1] is not as complete as it should be, owing to the fact that it was impossible to procure data to show whether progress through the grades has been rapid, normal, or slow.

An attempt was made to collect data showing the number of years each child had been in school, but owing to a lack of records and to the inability of many children to furnish this information, this part of the study is omitted. To present statistics showing only the number of years a child is behind his grade does not show all the facts. A pupil may be old for his grade and be making normal or even rapid progress. If a pupil enters school late, he may be over age, but he may be making a grade a year. If so, the retardation of that pupil should not be charged to the school, nor should the pupil be considered slow.

The following table shows the age-grade distribution of elementary school pupils:

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[1] The term retardation is used only in the sense of overageness.

Age-grade distribution of elementary school pupils, June 1, 1917.

Grades.	Ages.																							
	6 to 6½	6½ to 7	7 to 7½	7½ to 8	8 to 8½	8½ to 9	9 to 9½	9½ to 10	10 to 10½	10½ to 11	11 to 11½	11½ to 12	12 to 12½	12½ to 13	13 to 13½	13½ to 14	14 to 14½	14½ to 15	15 to 15½	15½ to 16	16 to 16½	16½ to 17	17 to 17½	Total.
1B	38	57	28	7	5		1	1																137
1A	2	93	72	24	15	6	4	1	3		1													221
2B			27	37	19	17	14	3			2													119
2A			7	37	48	32	20	5	10	1		2	1		1									164
3B				3	20	25	25	21	11	3	5	2												115
3A					9	44	51	33	24	19	11	7	6	1	2									207
4B						3	16	29	17	17	10	7	6	6	2	2	2							117
4A							2	34	41	25	15	13	8	7	5	2								152
5B								4	6	23	18	24	14	7	4	4				1		1		106
5A								4	2	25	30	13	17	9	20	4	3	5	1	1		1		135
6B									1	11	9	26	14	11	12	8	3	6	2					103
6A									1	2	7	14	38	25	16	20	7	7	4					141
7B											1	2	7	11	20	15	12	7	1	1	1	1		79
7A												2	4	25	17	17	19	14	8	7	5	3	2	113
8B													1	5	7	15	10	9	7	1	1			56
8A														2	4	24	25	20	15	15	4	4		113
Total	40	150	134	108	116	127	133	135	116	126	109	112	116	109	110	111	81	58	38	26	11	10	2	2,078

Children under age, of normal age, and over age.

Grade.	Under age.	Of normal age.	Over age.
	Per cent.	*Per cent.*	*Per cent.*
1B	27.7	62.0	10.2
1A	43.0	43.4	13.6
2B	22.7	47.1	30.2
2A	26.8	42.8	21.4
3B	20.0	43.5	36.5
3A	25.6	40.6	33.8
4B	16.1	39.5	44.4
4A	23.6	43.4	32.9
5B	9.4	38.7	51.9
5A	22.9	31.8	45.2
6B	20.4	38.8	40.8
6A	17.0	44.7	38.3
7B	12.7	39.2	48.1
7A	27.4	30.1	42.5
8B	23.2	44.6	32.1
8A	26.5	39.8	33.7
Total	24.3	42.5	33.1

Children under age, of normal age, and over age in each school.

Schools.	Under age.	Of normal age.	Over age.
	Per cent.	*Per cent.*	*Per cent.*
Franklin	25.3	36.5	38.2
Garford	36.0	40.0	24.0
Gates	26.1	46.2	27.7
Hamilton	24.8	38.7	36.5
Jefferson	30.3	47.3	22.4
McKinley	26.9	38.9	34.2
Ridge	23.9	47.4	28.7
City	24.3	42.5	33.1

In a study[1] of retardation in 29 cities, in which the ages were also taken as of June 1, it was found that 29. per cent of the school children were under age, 34 per cent of normal age, and 37 per cent over age. In Elyria 24.3 per cent are under age, 42.5 of normal age, and 33.1 per cent over age. There is but little retardation in the first grade in Elyria, the greatest amount being in the fifth grade.

The table following shows by grade the number of children retarded less than one year, one to two years, two to three years, and three or more years.

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[1] Identification of the Misfit Child. Ayres.

Retardation in the schools of Elyria.

Grades.	Number retarded.			
	Less than one year.	One to two years.	Two to three years.	Three or more years.
1B	12	1	1	....
1A	21	6	3	1
2B	31	3	2	....
2A	25	11	2	2
3B	32	5	2	....
3A	43	18	7	2
4B	27	13	8	4
4A	28	15	7	....
5B	38	11	4	2
5A	26	24	8	3
6B	23	11	8	....
6A	36	14	4	....
7B	27	8	8	....
7A	23	12	12	5
8B	16	2	....	....
8A	30	8	....	....
Total	438	162	71	19

The 14 children below the seventh grade retarded three or more years should have special work. There is no doubt that many of the children retarded two years or more should be placed in what might be termed "opportunity classes."

Though the amount of retardation in the Elyria schools is not excessive when compared with other schools, there should be fewer over-age pupils in each grade.

From a study of promotions made in February, 1917, it is evident that too many children failed, the average promotion rate for the city being 86.9. Since the per cent of over-age children is small in the primary grades and large in the upper grades it is evident that few children enter school late and that they become over age, partly at least, because of failure.

The following table shows the per cent promoted in each grade in each school:

Rate of promotion.

Schools.	Grades.								Average.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	
	Per cent.	*Per cent.*	*Per cent.*	*Per cent.*	*Per cent.*	*Per cent.*	*Per cent.*	*Per cent.*	*Per cent.*
Franklin	71.8	81.8	85.9	83.3	80.4	81.4	94.3	84.5	82.3
Jefferson	86.6	92.5	93.8	93.8	93.8	90.0	96.8	93.5	92.9
McKinley	91.0	89.0	95.0	89.0	86.0	83.9	86.0	88.0	88.0
Hamilton	79.4	84.7	80.0	79.0	87.9	86.8	84.5	....	83.2
Ridge	77.0	100.0	93.0	100.0	96.0	95.0	....	....	92.0
Gates	72.9	83.3	88.8	92.0	94.1	93.1	90.0	93.8	86.5
Garford	86.2	78.3	100.0	90.0	....	....	....	....	88.6
Average	78.3	86.0	88.9	89.4	88.4	84.1	88.9	88.4	86.9

With an average annual promotion rate of 78.3 per cent for the first grade, only 783 children out of 1,000 entering the first grade would be promoted to the second. That the average promotion rate of 86.9 per cent for all the grades is low is evident from the fact that, out of 1,000 children entering the first grade, only 325 would complete the eighth grade without failing. A promotion rate as high as 95 per cent permits only 663 children to complete the grades without failure. Of course some of the children who fail repeat and graduate in spite of failure, but why should 675 of 1,000 children in Elyria fail while going through the eight grades? This is based on the supposition that the average promotion rate for the past eight years has been 86.9 per cent.

Other causes it is true operate to produce failures, as irregular attendance and sickness. The former can be a charge against the school unless caused by sickness, and it is unfortunately true that sickness may frequently be charged to the school. The cause of a large amount of failure must be charged to the school. It may be due to a poorly prepared course of study or to poor teaching. If 25 per cent of a class fail there is evidently something wrong with the teaching or with the course of study. Whenever a teacher says that her pupils fail because they take no interest in school that teacher is acknowledging her inability to arouse interest or possibly the teacher is held to a threadbare course of study to such an extent that it is impossible to awaken interest in the class. From observations the committee is of the opinion that some of the failures are due to poor teaching, and that there would be fewer failures if the course of study were better suited to the needs of the pupils.

The following table shows the per cent of failures in six subjects in each of the eight grades:

Failures in six subjects in each of the eight grades.

Subjects.	Grades.								Average.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	
	Per ct.	*Per ct.*	*Per ct.*	*Per ct.*	*Per ct.*	*Per ct.*	*Per ct.*	*Per ct.*	*Per ct.*
Spelling	0.3	0.7	4.8	1.5	2.8	6.2	3.3	4.0	2.6
Language	.0	.0	2.6	3.1	5.0	5.5	12.7	13.3	3.9
Reading	20.3	10.1	5.1	1.6	1.4	3.2	1.1	.0	6.6
Arithmetic	17.7	6.8	11.5	11.7	12.0	13.2	17.2	9.8	12.0
Geography	....	....	....	10.6	8.7	11.6	8.3	....	9.6
History	....	....	....	....	....	....	8.0	7.5	5.9

There is an excessive number of failures in arithmetic in most of the grades. In the first grade 17.7 per cent fail in this subject. No child in the first grade should fail of promotion because of arithmetic. It is generally agreed that arithmetic should not be taught formally below the second grade. Many authorities would not have it taught except incidentally below the third grade.

The following tables show the per cent of failures in six subjects in each grade for the different schools:

Failures in reading.

Schools.	Grades.								Average.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	
	Per ct.	*Per ct.*	*Per ct.*	*Per ct.*	*Per ct.*	*Per ct.*	*Per ct.*	*Per ct.*	*Per ct.*
Franklin	20.7	16.7	4.7	1.3	4.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	7.09
Jefferson	13.0	7.5	3.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	3.5
McKinley	8.0	6.0	5.0	.0	.0	.0	3.0	.0	3.1
Hamilton	23.0	13.5	11.12	4.7	.0	15.8	.0	....	11.7
Ridge	22.0	.0	2.0	.0	.0	.0	....	....	5.8
Gates	27.14	13.0	2.2	2.8	3.0	3.4	.0	.0	8.9
Average	20.34	10.14	5.1	1.6	1.4	3.2	1.1	.0	6.6

Failures in arithmetic.

Schools.	Grades.								Average.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	
	Per ct.	*Per ct.*	*Per ct.*	*Per ct.*	*Per ct.*	*Per ct.*	*Per ct.*	*Per ct.*	*Per ct.*
Franklin	25.3	15.00	15.00	14.00	13.00	18.6	5.7	10.7	14.3
Jefferson	4.0	1.5	6.0	6.25	2.0	20.0	3.1	9.6	6.05
McKinley	8.0	6.0	9.0	7.0	10.0	13.0	14.0	11.0	10.0
Hamilton	21.4	13.5	15.56	28.0	21.21	0.0	11.5	....	15.88
Ridge	22.0	.0	7.0	.0	4.0	.0	....	....	7.3
Gates	20.0	2.2	5.5	8.1	18.0	20.0	26.6	6.2	14.7
Garford	13.8	21.74	.0	10.0	....	....	....	....	11.39
Average	17.66	6.8	11.45	11.7	12.0	13.2	17.2	9.8	11.98

Failures in spelling.

Schools.	Grades.								Average.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	
	Per ct.	*Per ct.*	*Per ct.*	*Per ct.*	*Per ct.*	*Per ct.*	*Per ct.*	*Per ct.*	*Per ct.*
Franklin	1.3	0.0	7.8	0.0	10.0	8.4	0.0	4.0	4.2
Jefferson	.0	.0	.0	6.25	.0	.0	.0	.0	.7
McKinley	.0	2.0	9.0	.0	.0	.4	7.0	6.0	2.6
Hamilton	.0	1.8	2.2	2.4	3.04	10.55	.0	....	2.6
Ridge	.0	.0	2.0	.0	4.0	3.0	....	....	1.6
Gates	.0	.0	4.5	28.0	.0	.0	6.6	.0	1.5
Garford	.0	.0	.0	.0	....	....	....	....	.0
Average	.3	.7	4.8	1.5	2.8	6.2	3.3	4.0	2.6

Failures in geography.

Schools.	Grades.				Average.
	4	5	6	7	
	Per ct.	*Per ct.*	*Per ct.*	*Per ct.*	*Per ct.*
Franklin	7.6	10.0	13.5	8.5	10.4
Jefferson	6.25	2.0	3.0	.0	3.0
McKinley	10.6	9.6	14.6	12.0	11.3
Hamilton	28.0	12.2	7.9	7.6	13.9
Ridge	.0	4.0	5.0	....	4.6
Gates	8.1	8.0	17.3	10.0	10.3
Average	10.6	8.7	11.6	8.3	9.6

Failures in history.

Schools.	Grades.		Average.
	7	8	
	Per ct.	*Per ct.*	*Per ct.*
Franklin	5.7	7.7	7.0
Jefferson	.0	3.2	1.5
McKinley	1.0	8.0	5.0
Hamilton	.0	....	.0
Gates	16.6	9.3	12.7
Average	3.0	7.5	5.9

Failures in language.

Schools.	Grades.						Average.
	3	4	5	6	7	8	
	Per ct.	*Per ct.*	*Per ct.*	*Per ct.*	*Per ct.*	*Per ct.*	*Per ct.*
Franklin	0.0	5.5	4.6	8.4	5.7	13.8	4.7
Jefferson	.0	.0	.0	6.0	3.1	6.4	1.8
McKinley	1.6	.0	6.0	9.0	16.0	13.0	3.2
Hamilton	11.12	6.0	15.16	5.3	11.5	....	5.9
Ridge	2.0	.0	.0	.0	....	....	.6
Gates	2.2	2.8	3.0	6.8	26.6	18.7	5.8
Average	2.6	3.1	5.0	5.5	12.7	13.3	3.9

It may be noted that there is a wide variation among the schools in the proportion of failures in several subjects. In the Jefferson School only 4 per cent of the first grade failed in arithmetic, while in the Franklin School 25 per cent of the first grade failed in that subject. In the Jefferson School 3.1 per cent of the seventh grade failed in arithmetic, while in the Gates School 26.6 per cent of the seventh grade failed. In the Hamilton School 15.8 per cent of the seventh grade failed in reading, while in four other schools there were no failures in reading in that grade.

Among the remedies to reduce the number of failures and the amount of retardation, the following may be suggested:

1. A course of study better adapted to the needs of the children.
2. The elimination of formal arithmetic in the first grade or the adoption of a better and more concrete method of teaching it.
3. The reduction of the amount of technical grammar in the seventh and eighth grades.
4. More and better supervision.
5. The advancement of the teacher with the class for three or four years. Much time is wasted by teachers at the beginning of each term in getting acquainted with new pupils. Few of the teachers know what the children in the grades below study, or how well. If teachers were advanced with their classes for three or four years they would become intimately acquainted with each pupil, and would not be teaching merely first grade or second grade, but teaching children.[1] This plan also would permit children to be grouped differently in different subjects.
6. The organization of a summer term for children who have failed in one or two subjects. In cities where summer schools are maintained about 75 per cent of the children who fail in one or two subjects at the close of the term and attend summer school make up the work.
7. Children in the primary rooms should be divided into three or four groups instead of two. The slow-moving pupils should be in one group, more rapidly moving pupils in another, and so on until about four groups have been formed. If there are two first grades in a building, eight groups can be formed, so that there will be only an interval of about a month between each group. A child need not then be held until the end of the term and required to repeat a half year's work. He can be dropped back to the next lower group when he shows that he can not keep up with the group that he is in, or if he shows special ability, he can be advanced to the next higher group. This plan does not cause a collection of the dull pupils into a class by themselves from the fact that the best pupils from below are allowed to rise as fast as their ability can carry them. Bright pupils are continually added to the different groups. In every group there will be its quota of bright pupils, some leading the class and some just sustaining themselves in it, having recently joined it.

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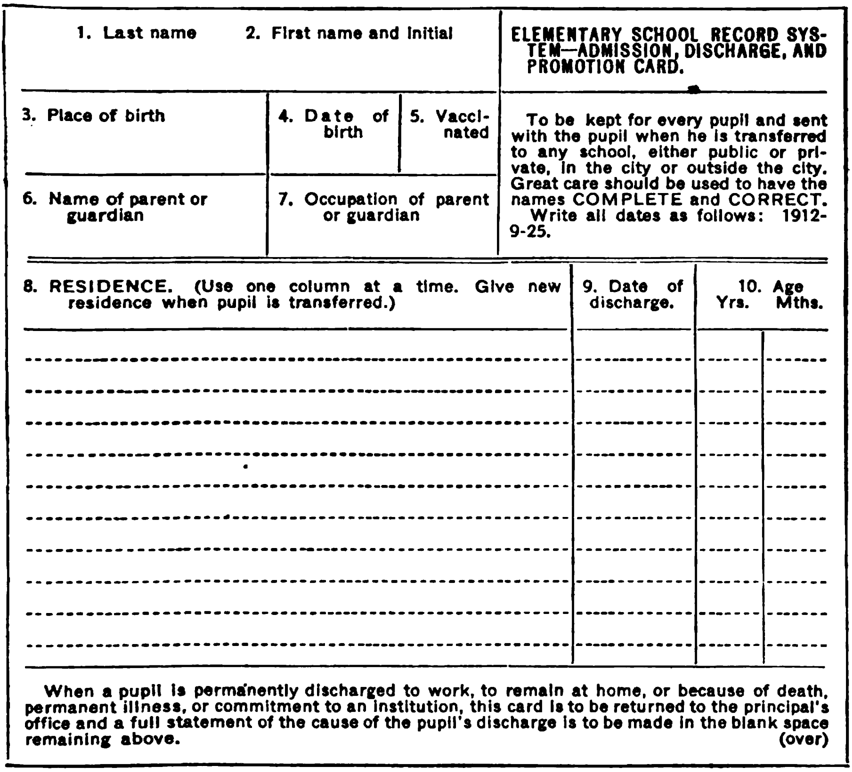
[1] See U. S. Bureau of Education Bulletin, 1915, No. 42, The Advancement of the Teacher with the Class.

RECORDS AND REPORTS.

One of the fundamental principles of school management is that only those records and reports that contain data usable for administrative purposes should be made. If the teachers are required to record too much, they tend to become mere clerks and to lose sight of the art of teaching. In Elyria, however, there is too little rather than too much attention given to records. No permanent records are kept in the elementary schools to show the entire school life of each child. Steps should at once be taken to prepare a card-record system to show for each child the number of days attended during the year, scholarship, etc. The following form, which was recommended by the department of superintendence of the National Education Association, is suggestive:

[Face.]



1. Last name	2. First name and initial		**ELEMENTARY SCHOOL RECORD SYSTEM—ADMISSION, DISCHARGE, AND PROMOTION CARD.**
3. Place of birth	4. Date of birth	5. Vaccinated	To be kept for every pupil and sent with the pupil when he is transferred to any school, either public or private, in the city or outside the city. Great care should be used to have the names COMPLETE and CORRECT. Write all dates as follows: 1912-9-25.
6. Name of parent or guardian	7. Occupation of parent or guardian		

8. RESIDENCE. (Use one column at a time. Give new residence when pupil is transferred.)	9. Date of discharge.	10. Age Yrs.	Mths.

When a pupil is permanently discharged to work, to remain at home, or because of death, permanent illness, or commitment to an institution, this card is to be returned to the principal's office and a full statement of the cause of the pupil's discharge is to be made in the blank space remaining above. (over)

[Reverse.]

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL RECORD SYSTEM—PROMOTION RECORD.

This card is to pass from teacher to teacher or from school to school as the pupil is promoted or transferred. It is to be filled out and sent to the principal's office when any change is made requiring a change in the office records. It is then to be sent to the teacher who has the pupil.

a	b	c		d	e	f	g	h	i
School	Date of admission.	Age Sept. 1.		Grade	Room	Days present	Health	Conduct	Scholarship
		Years	Months						
									(over)

The card would be improved if it contained on the reverse side a scholarship record by subjects.

In the high school a permanent record for each pupil has been kept in a large book. A card system or a loose-leaf ledger would be more convenient. This card or ledger should show essentially the same facts as the card for elementary schools.

In the grades and in the high school it is the custom to send monthly report cards to parents, showing days attended, times tardy, grades made in each subject, etc. A bimonthly report would be as effective as a monthly report. Special reports asking cooperation should be sent parents whose children are showing signs of weakness. This special report should state causes of the pupils' falling behind in their work. Or, better than a written report in serious cases, would be a personal visit. If reports are sent out each month, much time is wasted by the teachers in compiling them. A teacher no sooner has one set of reports made out than she must begin another. There should be a breathing spell between reports. There should be fewer reports, or some one should be employed to record the grades. In a large high school it is a difficult problem to keep track of pupils during the day. There must of necessity be some way for teachers to report to the principal's office whenever a pupil is absent from her class. The Elyria High School seems well supplied with blanks and cards for this purpose. Each teacher is provided with a blank on which she reports the hour a pupil is absent from her class. If a pupil "cuts a class" he is discovered. A form is used for pupils who wish to consult with the librarian or with a teacher in another room. By the use of this ticket it is definitely known whether a pupil has loitered on the way to or from the library or other room.

There should be more data regarding the children of Elyria in the office of the superintendent of schools. At the close of each term there should be sent him from each room the number of failures by grades and by subject and causes, distribution of leavings and withdrawals by ages and grades and causes, and distribution of attendance.[1]

For the teacher to furnish the superintendent with the data needed will require but little time. All tabulation should be made by clerks in the superintendent's office. He and his assistants should then interpret the data for administrative purposes.

The attendance officer should keep a file of the school census cards, as recommended in another part of this report.

It is also recommended that the superintendent each year issue a report covering the work of the year. In this report he should have data showing the exact conditions as regards attendance, progress of pupils, costs, etc.

SUPPLEMENTARY CLASSES.

Provision for exceptional children.—Provision for exceptional children is made in three special schools or classes: One for crippled and convalescent children, one for subnormal children, and one for motor-minded boys who do not take sufficient interest in the academic work alone.

A school for crippled and convalescent children is conducted in the city hospital. Seven children of varying ages and attainments were in attendance when the survey was made and the city course of study was followed. An experienced primary-school teacher was in charge. The children took great delight in their work and were making commendable progress. This school is obviously a boon to children who are either temporarily or permanently kept from attending the regular schools by their afflictions, and the city and State deserve high credit for maintaining it.

The schools for backward children and for motor-minded boys are both conducted in the old high-school building. The backward children, of whom 12 were in attendance, are in charge of a woman who has had special training for her work. She teaches the children in small groups and adapts the work well to their capacities. While some are receiving instruction in reading, writing, spelling, language, arithmetic, or geography, others are engaged in studying or in sewing, knitting, weaving, crocheting, making baskets, or caning chairs.

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[1] For a full discussion of records and reports, see U. S. Bureau of Education Bulletin, 1912, No. 3, Report of Committee on Uniform Records and Reports.

The school is in session from 8.30 to 11 a. m. and from 1 to 2 p. m., with a recess from 9.45 to 10. On the program all the forenoon time is set apart for work in the academic subjects and only the one hour in the afternoon for handwork. Although some handwork is done incidentally in the forenoon, it seems clear that too much time is spent on the academic subjects, in which the pupils are but little interested, and not enough on the handwork in which the pupils are much interested. Shopwork in manual training for the older children comes only once a week and can not now come oftener because the shops are occupied by the high-school pupils and by the vocational class.

The teacher in charge realizes that the facilities for manual training and handwork are inadequate and has requested more. Her request should be heeded.

This class not only does good work for the pupils that are in it, but it assists the schools generally by relieving the teachers of those pupils who can not keep up with the regular work. In this respect the class does not reach far enough. Unduly backward children were observed in a number of schools, and some of the teachers voluntarily spoke of their presence. These were usually remote from the building in which the special classes are housed. Elyria should provide an additional class for backward children.

An elementary school population of 2,100, such as Elyria's, would ordinarily be expected to furnish about 30 children sufficiently backward to require special instruction. Not more than 15 of such pupils should be assigned to one teacher.

Chapter IV.

SCHOOL BUILDINGS.

THE WASHINGTON SCHOOL.

The Washington or Old High School building was very badly planned, but apparently was well constructed as measured by the standards of its time. It is now in many respects unfitted for school purposes and should either be put in a more sanitary condition by thorough renovation or reconstruction or in part abandoned. If it is decided to reconstruct the building the roof should be taken off, all the inner walls should be taken down, and a competent architect familiar with school needs should be asked to replan and reconstruct it. The lighting in most of the rooms is bad, the rooms are impractical in size and shape, and the curiously constructed assembly room is dark. Any plan of reconstruction which will retain the outside walls will necessitate the disuse of the space in the center of the building except for halls, and these will be of necessity unnecessarily wide. The building is too wide in either of its main axes for two classrooms and a hall between; but an inner room could not be properly lighted and ventilated, and this waste will be necessary. Under the laws of Ohio, if a general reconstruction is undertaken which would affect or change the vital features of the building, it is necessary to comply with the present law in full. The statute says:

> It shall be unlawful for any owner, officer, board, committee, or other person to construct a * * * schoolhouse * * * or to make any addition thereto or alteration thereof, except in case of repairs without affecting the construction, sanitation, safety, or other vital feature of said building or structure, without complying with the requirements and provisions relating to this act.[1]

Because an unusual number of heavy brick walls were built from the basement to the attic and the support of the roof distributed rather irregularly in certain parts, it would be a difficult task, though possible, to support the roof when some of the supernumerary walls are taken down to make a greater number of classrooms. Furthermore, the location of the windows in the outer walls is bad, and if the proper lighting were provided, the appearance of the building from the outside, which is now pleasing, would be marred. The best thing to do is to tear the whole building down and use the stone, brick, and other salvage materials to construct an entirely different type of building. If this can not be done now and it is desired to get the most service out of the building at the least cost, the present hot-air heating system should be taken out and the classrooms and offices should be fitted with indirect-direct steam radiation, steam for which can possibly be supplied from the new technical building. The laws of the State demand, when steam heating is used, that what is known as the "split system" shall be used; that is, a part of the radiators shall be situated in the classroom and a part in the basement, through which fresh warmed air may be forced through ducts leading to the rooms.[1] In case this would overtax the boilers in the latter building, it would be necessary to install an independent heating system in the old building, and this would introduce the difficulty and the necessity of reconstructing a part of the basement, which is now in a very bad and insanitary condition. It would be poor economy to install in this damp basement an expensive heating plant, and the State laws would not permit the installation except in a thoroughly fire-proofed room.[2]

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[1] Laws of Ohio, vol. 102, 1911, p. 586.

Whatever plan is adopted, it will be necessary, both for the health of the children and the safety of the building, to render this basement dry and to throw into it more light and sunshine.

There is another plan which might be considered to make this building further useful. The room immediately back of the stage can easily be made into a serviceable recitation or laboratory room, and one or two of the small rooms on the east side could be transformed at small expense into recitation rooms, which would always be useful for the advanced classes in more or less specialized work. It is possible also to fit up at comparatively slight expense, if the authorities of the State will permit, a room in the attic in the central part of the building. This would be especially adapted for mechanical or freehand drawing. If this is attempted it would be necessary to make a safe passageway from the top of the steps to this room mentioned, as well as to render the room safe and warm in cold weather.

There is only one effective way to make the basement of this building or that of any other school building dry, and that is to surround it with an open-jointed farm-tile drain, set lower than the foundation walls, and at a distance of approximately 6 feet away. Naturally this drain must have a clear outflow either to the surface of lower ground or else, where permitted, trapped into a sewer. The method of placing this drain is as follows:

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[1] Laws of Ohio, vol. 102, 1911, p. 630.

[2] Sec. 12600-48, p. 622, Laws of Ohio, 1911.

1. Dig a trench about 6 feet from the outside walls and at least 6 inches deeper than the foundation walls—a foot would be better. The purpose is to conduct all ground waters away from the building and to keep the footings of the walls from standing in water-soaked ground from which moisture would be carried by capillarity into the walls above. Once the ground under the walls and basement floors is thoroughly dry no more trouble will be experienced if the drain is set properly. Naturally the tiles must be set carefully, so that the water which will gather in them will be carried off immediately.

2. Well-burnt 4-inch farm-drain tile, which should cost from 3 to 5 cents a foot, will be large enough.

3. If a shovel full of medium coarse gravel be carefully poured over each joint after the tiles have been set and fastened on the bottom of the drain, no broken stone or cinders need be put over the tiles.

4. In undertaking to drain deep basements it will be found necessary to run a level from the proposed outlet of the tiles to all points in the coarse of the drain about the building so as to be sure that it can be deep enough and have sufficient fall in all parts to cause the water to flow away readily.

5. It is far better to put a drain around a building than to put it under the floor or against the walls. By the use of the former method the water is caught before it is forced under the building and the dangers of damp walls and floors are greatly lessened.

6. The joints between the tiles must not be cemented together or joined any closer than necessary to prevent the infiltration of sand or silt.

WORKMANSHIP.

The newer buildings, with perhaps the exception of the Gates School, show in various parts that the workmanship was not of a high grade. The cement work, plastering, finishings, and plumbing in many instances do not show good work. It is difficult at times for boards of education to command the means to do what they are both willing and anxious to do; but great care should be taken in drawing specifications, and then it should be demanded unflinchingly that the work when completed shall be an exact fulfillment of the contract. Furthermore, the best economy in permanent school buildings demands good material and the best of workmanship, for where hundreds of children spend a great part of their working hours there is bound to be hard usage.

As an example of poor workmanship or improper specifications, or both, the cement floors in the McKinley School and the cement work in the Technical High School may be cited. Other buildings show the same defects. There is a great wear and tear on basement floors, especially when the only toilets available are located there. The Technical High School gets harder usage than any hotel in Cleveland, for its daily attendance is greater and the expense for its care is small in comparison; hence the need for great care in construction. An example of bad planning occurs in the plenum chamber of the Technical High School building. That plenum chamber consists of a set of large tunnels and passageways under the lowest floor of the part of the building devoted to classrooms. Into this set of caverns a medium-sized fan delivers tempered air, and is supposed to put it under sufficient pressure to force it equally into the classrooms without the loss of its heat. Theoretically and practically this is not possible in cold weather. There should have been built at a suitable place under the building a plenum chamber of the proper dimensions to receive the air, and from this all the ducts leading to the rooms should emerge. The ducts should be properly covered to prevent the loss of heat, and the plenum chamber should be air-tight to keep the air within it under pressure and to insure its rapid exit into the rooms. As it is, the space under the lowest floor is absorbing most of the heat in cold weather, and it seems certain the fan is unable to meet the demands on it. Adequate tests should be made during cold weather to determine the best method of correction. Perhaps the least expensive and most practicable plan would be to install additional radiators in rooms and halls and depend on the windows for some of the ventilation. This would be theoretically erroneous advice if the rooms were supplied with sufficient fresh warm air, but since this is not true some other method of heating and ventilation must be provided.

The down spouts from the eaves troughs should have been set in the walls to prevent them from filling with ice when the snow partially melts on the roofs in midday and freezes in the night or afternoons. The drains from outside areaways and stairways are improperly constructed and are doubtless overtaxed during heavy rains or thaws. These and many other details show the lack of careful planning or poor construction. Such faults should be prevented in future building.

THE SELECTION OF SCHOOL GROUNDS.

The selection of a good site for a school building is extremely important. Comparatively few boards of education realize how intimately the size, shape, position, orientation, and contour of a school lot may affect not only the sort of building it is to carry, but somewhat intimately the whole educational usefulness of the building. Satisfactory lighting for classrooms can only be had when the windows face either east or west. Suppose, therefore, that a lot is chosen fronting a street or roadway running north and south.

The lighting could be properely arranged under these conditions only if the broad sides of the building should front east or west; hence a whole side of the building should open toward the street. This might be all right provided the lot were deep enough from east to west to set the building well back from the street, otherwise the noise and dust from the street would be a constant menace to the quiet and healthful condition of the classrooms. If, on the other hand, a lot be selected fronting a street running east or west, then the end or narrow part of the building would have to face the street and the windows on the broad sides of the building face east or west. Generally speaking, this is the best direction in which to face a building. It permits the main entrance to be situated in one end of the main hall so that the classrooms may be located on either side of this, opening to the east and west for their light. This, then, would shield the rooms somewhat from the noise and dust of the street and allow the long axis of the building to run at right angles to the street. Furthermore, it is advisable, if possible, to select a lot on the south side of a street running east and west rather than the north side. The reason for this preference is that the playground back of the building will receive the sun better and be drier and more acceptable as a playground than if it were in shadow of the building.

The necessity of selecting a lot which can be easily drained is illustrated by the location of the high-school building. Here, because the basements are deep and the ground nearly level, the difficulty of placing the tile drain about the buildings sufficiently low to keep the foundations and basements dry is evident. If a playground runs off into low ground which receives the drainage from contiguous territory, another difficulty is encountered. All considerations, therefore, demand a lot which lies higher than the ground about it at least in one direction, with ample opportunity for thorough subsoil drainage.

Large grounds for school buildings are important even though the children must walk for a greater distance. Play is one method of teaching children, and it is their legitimate right. The games of children meet the instinctive needs of child life. Through their variety they have given the children almost an unlimited opportunity for exercise which tends to develop all parts of the body. Instinctively boys have taken to those games which demand strength and fleetness, while girls' games are more individualistic and less strenuous, especially upon the muscles of the shoulders and back. Besides, games are the most democratic institutions about our schools. The hero of the playground is not measured by any family or social relations, but by his ability to surpass in playing the game according to rule. They learn to work together, to cooperate as a team, and to adjust their tempers. It is poor economy to stint children with scant playgrounds and to fail to give them the needed opportunity for cooperative effort. The problem in America is to learn to subordinate individual desire when this runs counter to the best institutions of the group. Well-regulated and well-ordered playgrounds are fundamentally necessary for an education in a democracy which we are striving to attain. It is better to economize in many other things rather than in spaces for playgrounds. Five or six acres of ground around the high-school group of buildings would afford space for tennis courts, baseball diamonds, and football grounds, and would add greatly to the educational poportunities. A playground at a distance from the school building is better than none, but the lack of necessary supervision and care always detracts from the value of such games as may be organized. Furthermore, shower baths, lavatories, and drinking water are more easily supplied at the school building than at a detached playground. All successful democracies have counted heavily on games and plays as a fundamental part of the preparation for citizenship. A boy who has no opportunity to learn to play at school is deprived of one of the essentials of education, both physical and social.

A school lot, if possible, should always be away from busy thoroughfares, from business houses, from railways and noisy car lines of any description. It should be a quiet, clean, safe spot where children can be gathered together, free from disturbance and from the dirt and dust of modern commercial life.

The Elyria school board is to be commended for its policy of making a careful study of the city and anticipating as far as possible the needs in its several districts by going into the market early and selecting the best locations, and thus forestalling exorbitant prices usually demanded for school grounds.

By way of recapitulation it may be said that school grounds demand the following conditions:

1. They should be large enough for ample playgrounds.

2. They should be dry and capable of thorough underdrainage.

3. They should preferably face a street running east and west and situated on the south of the street.

4. They should be away from busy thoroughfares, manufacturing places, street railways, steam railways, and any other disturbing or injurious environment.

5. The soil should be capable of producing lawns, flowers, and trees, and suitable for playgrounds.

PLANNING SCHOOL BUILDINGS.

When new buildings are to be constructed it is desirable that a committee of teachers, with the superintendent as its chairman, be selected to cooperate with the architect in working out every detail of the plans. The architect should make pencil sketches for preliminary studies until full agreement is reached between the committee, the board, and the architect. Before final plans are made it would be well to submit the preliminary plans to specialists in this field, and then, of course, to the State authorities for approval. The architect should never be allowed to make final drawings until these preliminary studies are carefully made and approved by all concerned. Teachers know, or should know, what conditions are demanded for comfort, convenience, and health in school buildings, and they have a perfect right to be heard. They know more about schoolhouses from the standpoint of function than architects do. Architects should be held responsible for safety in construction, for honesty in workmanship, for wise specifications, and for knowledge of markets and labor, and for planning to meet a given budget and to eliminate waste space. An honest and capable architect can always save more than the amount of his fees. School architecture is unlike any other line of building, and demands special preparation and a true conception of the purpose of education.

SIZE OF CLASSROOMS.

The classrooms in many of the older buildings of Elyria are unnecessarily large. The policy seems to be to set the number of pupils for classes in the elementary school at about 40. Naturally, high-school classes will vary with the subjects taught and with the advancement of the classes. A classroom 31 feet long, 23 feet wide, and 12½ feet high is large enough for a class of 40 elementary pupils; to make it larger than this not only increases the initial cost, but adds to the expense for upkeep, heating, and cleaning. A room of this size is easily lighted from one side, brings the teachers and pupils sufficiently near together for easy instruction and good control, and tends to prevent the mistake sometimes made of burdening the teacher with too large a class.

Classrooms in high-school buildings should be of varying sizes, for it is poor economy to teach a small class in advanced Latin, for example, in a large room. On the other hand, classes in first-year English, mathematics, and history require a room large enough for from 20 to 30 students, which should be the maximum size of a class. High-school children usually pass from room to room for their recitations, and programs can be made so that the smaller rooms can be used for the smaller classes and the large rooms for the larger classes.

It is a mistake to make classrooms higher than 12½ feet from finished floor to finished ceiling. With rooms of the size indicated good light and ventilation can be obtained with a ceiling of that height, money can be saved in construction, and the fewer steps in the stairways would lessen the danger in case of fire and relieve adolescent girls in a measure from what might be a severe strain. The newer buildings are approximately correct in this particular, and no further emphasis need be placed on this point.

CLOAKROOMS.

The various methods employed in providing cloakrooms are in general satisfactory and no suggestion or criticism seems necessary. Usually it is better to open cloakrooms for the elementary classes into the classroom only. Where fans are used, an exhaust duct should be set well above the clothing, so that these rooms may be ventilated directly outward and not into the classrooms. The plan of opening cloakrooms into classrooms makes it possible for teachers to prevent many mistakes in clothing, umbrellas, lunch boxes, etc. It must be remembered that moral standards of children are in the making, and unnecessary temptation, to say the least, is a useless risk.

COLOR OF WALLS.

Walls or wainscoting below the level of the children's eyes when seated should be of some nonreflecting color, as a neutral brown. This harmonizes well with any other coloring and is unoffensive and not easily marred. The walls above the level of the eyes of children, save, of course, the blackboard spaces, should be a light shade of gray or slightly buff gray. The color of the ceiling should be somewhat lighter, but so applied as to eliminate blotches of high light that might cause trouble. Hallways should always be of a lighter color, in order to prevent the absorption of light. A good plan is to use white-enameled brick for a rather high wainscoting and white plaster for the walls and ceilings above. The halls of the McKinley School are too dark. The wainscoting is made of glazed brownish brick and the ceiling and walls of other shades of brown or green. The small rooms back of the landings of the stairways shut out much of the light. The condition would be improved at little expense by painting the walls and ceilings a clear white. If that is not sufficient, more windows should be placed in the wall between the landings and the small rooms back of them. It is not advisable to use wall paper, especially dark paper, in classrooms. Such rooms are more wholesome with the proper plastering, refinished when necessary with a good quality of kalsomine. Most wall paper absorbs too much light, is easily defaced or soiled, and in a short time will present an unkempt appearance.

FLOORS.

In the main, the buildings of Elyria, especially the newer ones, have good maple floors, and with proper care they should prove entirely satisfactory for an indefinite period. Such floors ought to be scrubbed rarely, and then with as little water as possible. If these floors are frequently scrubbed, as now seems to be the practice, the alternate shrinkings and swellings will cause cracks to open and fill with dirt, the boards to cup and to loosen from the joists below. The pores of the wood should be closed with some unobjectionable filler and the floor should be surfaced with floor wax to prevent undue wear and tear. It appears that the Ohio law does not prohibit the use of hot linseed oil in such quantity as the floors will fully and readily absorb. After this is dry the floor should be waxed and polished and daily swept with some acceptable sweeping compound or with a combination of clean, fresh sawdust properly dampened with water and wax or a light nonodorous oil. To this mixture may be added also a portion of salt or clean, white sand. Good brushes should be supplied to all janitors with which to do the sweeping. They are now complaining of lack of these. Sticky oil as a floor dressing is objectionable in many ways and it is not to be recommended. The wood floors in general, under the present method of treatment, are rapidly deteriorating and will soon be unsightly and more and more difficult to keep sanitary. It is always poor economy to neglect the floors of school buildings, for they at best receive hard usage and are a vital element in the health of children as well as in the general appearance of the building.

The method of treatment which has been suggested will not only preserve the floors but will prevent much of the fine dust from lifting into the air and falling again on desks, books, and all the furnishings of a schoolroom. While it is impossible to keep down all dust, it is very important to reduce this menace to health to the lowest possible point. Dusting should be done with so-called dustless mops and brushes, rather than with rags or any sort of a feather duster; for these latter only scatter the dust, again to cause trouble.

Much wear and tear on floors can be prevented by well-cared-for playgrounds, especially if cement walks are constructed all about school buildings. The children would gather less mud on their shoes and carry in less sand and fine gravel to cut and grind out the floors. Plenty of scrapers should be furnished, and the children should be trained to clean their shoes carefully. This habit will be useful through life. Without some device to hold and balance themselves, children can not clean their shoes well. Stakes or rods or a pipe railing properly placed for the children to hold would be very useful.

LIGHTING OF SCHOOL BUILDINGS.

The best natural illumination for classrooms is obtained through windows opening toward the east or west. Offices, libraries, laboratories, manual training rooms, domestic science rooms, and other rooms for similar purposes may have south light, while drawing-rooms and art rooms in general are well situated when receiving north side light or north skylight.

There are several reasons for preferring east or west light for classrooms, and two of the most important of these may be stated as follows:

East exposure on clear days affords opportunity for the warming and purifying influences of sunshine in the rooms before school time, and also allows shades to be completely rolled up as soon as the sun is high enough for the direct rays of the sun to leave the desks nearest the windows.

A west exposure receives the direct rays in the afternoons for only a short time before school closes and on sunny days shades will have to be used at most about an hour and a half. Immediately after school adjourns for the day these shades should be rolled up and left so until the direct rays of sunlight come the next day. Such management of shades will greatly aid in keeping classrooms wholesome.

In this discussion it has been assumed that classrooms are provided with unilateral lighting; that sufficient glass area is provided; that the windows are set in the correct place, and that the classroom is of the proper size and proportion. Most of the old buildings were constructed with windows on two sides of classrooms, and this was done more for the sake of outward appearance than for the comfort and health of pupils and teachers. Architects have been compelled to set themselves to the task of planning, first for usefulness and for the best outside appearance afterwards. A good illustration of unilateral lighting is the Gates School. Unfortunately, the windows in this building while properly grouped are set so low that in most of the classes the children's eyes are in a strain because the reflected light from without shines directly into their eyes. The lower part of the sash of all classroom windows should be above the level of the eyes of the children when they are seated at their desks. The windows in the rooms for the first grades should never be set lower than 3½ feet above the floor, and those for all the higher classes should be set at least 4 feet above the floor.

The windows of most of the buildings are long enough to reach near the ceilings, and this plan should be consistently followed. In unilateral lighting the ratio of glass to floor surface is usually stated as one to four, one to five, or one to six. The variation is dependent on latitude, local environment, and general weather conditions. In Elyria where there is apparently not enough smoke to be troublesome and no hills to raise the horizon line, properly set glazing in the ratio of one to five ought to be sufficient. We suggest that a room 31 by 23 by 12½ feet, which is large enough for 40 elementary school pupils, would be well lighted by five windows 8 feet long and 3½ feet wide, set 4 feet above the floor.

SEATING.

Bilateral lighting of classrooms makes the problem of seating much more difficult than with unilateral lighting. The law of Ohio specifies the width of the aisles, both next the window side and between desks. Possibly this is in general a wise precaution, and yet the specification for the aisles next the window seems to be unnecessarily large. When buildings are properly constructed and windows set as they should be, an aisle 18 inches wide next the windows, free from all obstructions, is sufficient. Of course if buildings are poorly constructed and the windows are badly fitted, so that much cold air blows through, it is better for the children to be at a greater distance from the windows. It is better to arrange the desks in rows parallel to the longer axis of the room, provided, of course, this does not compel the children to face the windows. The reason for this demand is to prevent the children furthest from the windows from having to work in poor illumination. The main light should come from the left of the children when seated at their desks, so that they will not be troubled with the shadows of their own bodies or hands on their books or paper. If children were generally left-handed, it would be proper for the light to come from the right side. In a corner room with windows on both outer walls, it is extremely difficult either for the teacher or the pupils to be placed so that one or the other will not be forced to face glaring windows, for usually in such rooms the windows on one side are insufficient for light when the others are closed. Moreover, cross shadows are produced, and these are unnecessary distractions. Generally speaking, no seat should be further from the main source of illumination than a distance equal to twice the height of the top of the window above the floor. For example, if windows 12 feet high are placed in one side only and with the longer axis of the room, then the room may be 24 feet wide. It is better, however, to group the desks as close to the window side of the classroom as possible, taking into account all conditions. Where 40 children are to be accommodated in one classroom, usually the best arrangement is five rows of desks with eight in each row. This will give sufficient space near the blackboard for workers and will also bring the children into the best light available.

In some of the primary classrooms where the desks are small they are grouped far to the rear of the classroom, with a very large space in front for the teacher's desk. There are some advantages in this plan, but there are also some serious disadvantages. One of these is that it removes the children so far from the teacher's blackboard that it may be very difficult for some of them to see and understand the work she places there. A more serious difficulty is that when the children are so far in the rear, even with unilateral lighting, too much light shines into their faces. It is sometimes difficult, too, for the children to understand what the teacher says and for the teacher to understand the children. Of course, there is some advantage to the teacher to be able to bring the children before her in groups for certain exercises or recitations. This, however, does not fully offset the difficulties enumerated.

Those who set the desks should be directed to put them at a minus distance apart; that is, if a vertical line is dropped from the edge of the desk toward the floor it should cut the seat about 2 inches from its front edge. This, of course, should vary somewhat with the style of desks used. The purpose of this is to give the children the use of the back rest while they are busy at their work.

In the study room of the Lincoln School the desks should be turned toward the north end of the building with the left side to the west. This would necessitate closing the windows on the north side by opaque curtains and keeping them closed; but this arrangement would certainly bring great relief to the students, especially to those students who are farthest from the light and have to work in their own shadows. The desks are now placed so that the backs of the pupils are to the west, which is the main source of light.

BLACKBOARDS.

There is comparatively little to be said regarding blackboards except to commend the wisdom of the board in installing a good quality of slate. In certain buildings, however, the blackboards are not set at the proper distance above the floor. Generally speaking, blackboards for the first and second grades should be not lower than 26 inches from the floor; for the third and fourth, 28 inches; for the fifth and sixth, approximately 30 inches; and for all other grades 3 feet. If blackboards are set too low the children must kneel on the floor or else their writing is done under great difficulty.

Some of the slate panels were badly set and have loosened from their backing, thereby making uneven joints. Such a condition is troublesome, because in the hands of children erasers are likely to strike the uneven joint, fall to the floor, and scatter dust in the room. Very careful supervision should be given to workmen who are engaged in installing blackboards to see that the panels are all fastened securely to the backing and that the joists are true and smooth.

Some of the buildings are still using composition boards, and these seem to be in a fair condition, but in the long run such boards are more expensive than good slate, for they will constantly need repairs. Besides, composition boards after use for a time wear sleek, and are liable to reflect light in such a way as to make the work on the board illegible from some parts of the room. Good slate is free from this defect, and if properly cared for will last indefinitely. It is good economy to use the quality of slate that is installed in most of the new buildings.

HEATING.

By reason of the fact that the buildings were examined when no heat was needed the only information we are able to get concerning the effectiveness of the heating systems was derived from janitors and teachers and from a general examination of the apparatus. All the newer buildings are supplied with steam-heating systems, while some of the older buildings use hot-air systems. This was to be expected, for much progress has been made since the old high school or the Ridge Street building was constructed. Certainly the low-pressure steam heating is best for winters as cold as those at Elyria. With good boilers well set, sufficient radiators properly placed and equably balanced, and with a satisfactory system of thermostats kept in good repair, there should be little trouble in getting sufficient heat.

It may be of some use to suggest that since the water pressure in the city is not very high at times the air pumps supplying the pressure tanks for the thermostats may not give the pressure needed to handle the dampers effectively. It is easy to learn if this is true.

Complaint was made by the janitors at several buildings that some rooms were insufficiently supplied with radiators. This was true especially for the Technical High School, the Gates School, and one or two others. Sometimes ineffective heating is due to insufficient discharge of condensations rather than to a lack of radiating surface. At the Gates building are some very long wall-type radiators, which at best are not very effective. They are so set as to suggest slow drainage, and that would, of course, result in smaller steam capacity. If this be the source of the trouble there, it can be easily remedied. The deficiency at the high school seems to be lack of sufficient radiating surface, especially in the halls and assembly room, because the heat from the tempering coils in the basement is largely absorbed in the cavernous plenum chamber below. It would be possible to meet the deficiency by adding to the indirect radiation by multiplying the tempering coils, but this would be losing much of the heat under the floors without effect in the rooms, and also of increasing the load of the fan through added friction.

If the heating problem is serious, the best thing to do is to employ a competent engineer and let him make a thorough examination during very cold weather and report the best means of correction.

None of the buildings is supplied with humidifying devices. A higher temperature, therefore, is required in the classrooms than would be required if the percentage of saturation were raised by introducing moisture. For example, in zero weather, when air outside has a high degree of saturation, if it is heated to 68 or 70° F., it expands to such an extent as to reduce the saturation to a very low degree. The air is dry and harsh and will quickly absorb moisture from the skin and respiratory tracts. As evaporation is always a cooling process, children and teachers are chilly in a room supplied with such air, when with more moisture they would be comfortable at the same temperature. In all future buildings some inexpensive and yet effective humidifying device should be installed; it would not only save expense, but it would add to the health and comfort of all concerned. A temperature of 66° when the saturation is as high as 51 per cent is more comfortable than 70° when the percentage of saturation is as low as 25, which is not at all infrequent in classrooms in cold weather.

VENTILATION.

Under the topic "workmanship," attention was called to the defects in the plenum-fan system of the main part of the Technical High School building, and no further discussion of the ventilation of that building is necessary here. Attention should be called, however, to the general need of more careful ventilation in the other buildings, especially when the fans are not running. At the time of the examination the weather was mild, and since little or no heat was needed the fans were not running. The ventilation of the classroom depended on the thoughtfulness of the teacher, and her knowledge of handling the windows. Most of the classrooms visited were badly ventilated, and the air was foul and unfit to breathe. Both teachers and janitors should be carefully instructed on the best methods of managing windows for ventilation. One of the difficulties incident to the use of windows for supplying the classrooms with fresh air is in the kind of shades used. Those teachers who have classrooms with a southern exposure are compelled to draw down the shades during all sunny days to protect the children from the glare of direct sunshine on their desks; hence they must open the lower half of the windows for ventilation, and the pupils are subjected to drafts. Those rooms with windows on the north have no need for shades, and those supplied ought to be removed, unless the teacher is compelled to face the windows. Rooms depending wholly upon east windows have need for shades in the early part of the day only, and after the direct sunlight passes, the teachers should be instructed to roll up the shades, both for the sake of light and in order that the sash may be drawn down from the top for ventilation. Classrooms with west windows only should have the shades rolled up until the sunshine begins to be troublesome, and as soon as school closes they should be again rolled up until the next afternoon. This will not only insure better light during school hours, but will also afford an opportunity for the sunshine to sweep the room and purify it after school has closed for the day.

Many of the top sashes have no catches into which window sticks may be inserted to raise or lower the sash. This defect should be remedied at once and all the windows made easily manageable. Teachers are very busy people, and women are not able to handle windows as easily as men can. Either a type of shade should be used which permits easy adjustment to all parts of the window openings, or else those now in use should be fastened to the bottom of the casings so that they may be pulled up from the bottom rather than down from the top. At any rate it is essential to the health of teachers and pupils that the ventilation should be better than it was when the buildings were examined.

Much has been said recently regarding the value of fans for driving fresh air into classrooms. The State code specifies or permits the use of fans and presumably assumes that sufficient fan power will be supplied.

Unfortunately, many school boards throughout the country have failed to supply sufficient fan power to meet the theoretical requirement, not to mention practical demands. In the main, and especially in the larger buildings of Elyria, the fans are too small to drive in sufficient fresh air and keep it in motion in the classrooms. Under these conditions teachers must either keep the children in impure and often superheated air, or else resort to open windows for help. If some teachers do this and others do not, then the balance in pressure is destroyed, and some rooms are profiting at the expense of others. If fans are to be used, by all means put in fans too large rather than too small, for the latter endanger the health and comfort of the children. The most expensive thing in school work is bad air.

DRINKING WATER.

The board of education is to be commended in supplying sanitary drinking fountains easily accessible to the children, where they may have good water without danger of contamination. The only suggestion to be made with regard to this service is that fountains for the smaller children be set at the proper height, so that they may drink without climbing on boxes or stools and without having to stand too erect. Thoughtful care of the little folks demands adaptations to suit their needs. Appliances are frequently purchased without this care.

TOILETS.

The boys' toilet in the Lincoln School is in a very bad condition and should be remedied at once. One plan would be (1) to move the partition between the girls' and boys' rooms farther south, so as to add another window to the boys' room, and (2) to set the seats so as to face the windows and place the urinals under the windows, so that both the seat stalls and the urinals may have light and sunshine. The best of fixtures should be installed in both rooms, and the floor should be set with white tile or made of terrazo. Back of the stalls in the boys' room, if they are set as recommended, a small storeroom can be made, and a door into the boys' toilet should be opened from the passageway leading to the space where bicycles are now kept. All the walls should be thoroughly cleaned and either painted with white water-proof paint or set with white tiles. If another and larger room can be found in a convenient and private place in the building and supplied with sunshine, it would be far better to install new fixtures for the boys' toilet there, for with the best adjustment possible in the room now occupied, and even with the enlargement suggested, it may be too short for a sufficient number of seats and urinals.

The partitions between the stalls are, in both the boys' and girls' rooms, unnecessarily high; they impede ventilation and make the rooms dark. Five feet is high enough for the partition in the girls' toilets and 5½ feet is high enough for those in the boys' room. They can be braced by teeing together rods from the front corner post to a rod or pipe running across the front, sufficiently high to give head room for the tallest students. This method is now in use in some of the buildings.

These rooms should be put in better condition, for they now invite defilement and careless usage. The toilet rooms in the Ridge School building and in the Jefferson building are also in bad condition and need remodeling and refitting. The rooms at the Franklin School, while not in such bad condition as those in the other buildings mentioned, are supplied with old-style furniture, set back to back, and the light and ventilation are insufficient. All these rooms should be renovated at the earliest possible date, and modern fixtures should be installed.

At this point it may be well to make some suggestions touching the proper location of toilet rooms and the best method of equipping them. First, the toilet rooms should have direct sunshine, and plenty of it, to keep them sanitary and light. Second, the stalls should face the light and never be set back to back; all parts of the room should be open for quick inspection. Third, the best sanitary fixtures should be installed under guaranty, preferably direct individual washouts for the seats, and white porcelain urinals. Fourth, the rooms should be set in tile or terrazo and should drain to an outlet, so that the floors may be washed out every day after the close of school. Fifth, either an exhaust fan should be installed to discharge the air from the seat and the rooms as a whole into an independent duct leading to the outside through the roof, or else ample window ventilation should be afforded. Sixth, the sides of the stalls should be as low as privacy will permit and braced as indicated before. Seventh, the fixtures for the little folks should be of juvenile size and so placed that automatic segregation of the younger pupils from the older would take place. Eighth, a mechanic should be charged with the duty of keeping the closets in repair, and the janitor should be required to keep them in good sanitary condition at all times. Ninth, a private room should be supplied for the older girls, and in this a self-closing sanitary receptacle should be placed. For high schools, a nickel-in-the-slot machine from which sanitary napkins can be had has proved very acceptacle. Tenth, toilet rooms need not be over 12 feet wide, for large rooms invite congregation, tend to prevent the sunshine from reaching all parts, make unnecessary labor in keeping them clean, and increase the initial cost. Eleventh, if proper privacy can be had, toilets should be installed on all the floors and not in the basements only. Twelfth, long narrow rooms with windows at one end, such as those in the Technical High School building, are not satisfactory. Finally, in order to set high standards of decency and decorum, especially amongst the boys, turn in the light and keep these rooms above reproach.

VACUUM CLEANING.

Vacuum cleaning devices for school buildings, properly installed and regularly used, are of great service in keeping floors clean, preserving them from the wear of sand and grit that are difficult to sweep up, and preventing the rise of dust in the air to settle again on desks and other school furniture. If, however, the attempt is made, as it has been in many places, to install a vacuum engine in the basement with ducts leading to hallways only, and depending on long hose connected with these to clean the classrooms, they prove unsatisfactory for the simple reason that the hose is so long and heavy that janitors can not or will not handle it. Besides, a long hose offers so much friction to the passage of the air that its suction power is greatly reduced and it is much less effective. The only proper way to install a vacuum cleaning device of this type is to put an opening in front of each room, so that a short hose will be sufficient. Under this condition the floors can be kept in almost perfect sanitary condition. When such a system is used regularly, school children suffer less from colds and are less liable to other forms of contagious troubles. Unless vacuum systems are correctly installed, strong enough to give vigorous suction, and used consistently, it is scarcely worth while to go to the expense of installing them. When they have failed to meet expectations, the failure has been generally due to false economy in installing apparatus too small and with inefficient piping.

JANITOR SERVICE.

The janitor service of the Elyria school department is properly on a civil-service basis. This means security of position so long as the service is of standard quality, and advance in wages when the work done either in quality or quantity increases. One of the most important officers connected with a school, especially an elementary school, is an intelligent, careful, and painstaking janitor. His work is not confined to sweeping, dusting, and providing heat and ventilation, but there are literally scores of duties for him to perform which are not usually considered by those who employ him. Moreover, the machinery in a modern school building demands intelligence and initiative of a high degree. A janitor who is skillful with tools and has ability to construct needed devices, to repair minor defects in equipment, and meet all sorts of emergencies is a public servant who deserves appreciation and commendation. There are daily opportunities also for moral service which must be tactfully and wisely performed. No teacher in a school comes into more vital moral contact with the boys than the janitor. The janitor has a profession which should offer incentive for promotion and progress. It would be well to have regular meetings of janitors, for which specified professional programs should be arranged and better ways of doing their work discussed. Such a series of meetings might be organized into a sort of janitor school, to improve those who are in service, and to prepare candidates to enter the service. There are always better ways of doing things, and as new conditions arise new adjustments must be made. The programs should include lectures from the school superintendent, the inspector of buildings, health officers, plumbers, engineers, and also opportunities for the janitors themselves to set forth the special devices or methods which they find useful. They should have books and magazines relating to their duties, and a consistent effort should be made to develop a real professional spirit. Some janitors use more coal than necessary, through lack of understanding of combustion and stoking; others waste water, gas, and electricity; some are skillful in saving, and in making the most of conditions. If all such experiences were brought to light and examined intelligently and sympathetically, saving and better service would result. Besides, a trade or profession which does not command intelligent interest will degenerate into a mere task, more or less loathsome.

During the time the buildings were inspected the janitors were uneasy and many of them were complaining of this or that. It is impossible to say whether these complaints were well founded or not. The janitors repeatedly volunteered the statement that it was very difficult to get the supplies they needed, or in case repairs were imperatively needed that relief came very slowly. There were no outward signs of disloyalty, but there can be no doubt of the uneasiness. Whether as a result of this general state of mind or other conditions we found the janitor service in some instances not of the hightest standards. In a number of buildings, for instance, we found the fresh-air intake dirty and used as a storage place for oil cans, brooms, mops, and the like. It should be clear even to the most thoughtless that this space should be kept scrupulously clean, for through it the fan is drawing the air for the classrooms. Any dust or odor allowed to gather there will be driven into the classrooms to the detriment and discomfort of the teachers and children. Besides, any material stored in these intakes will be an obstruction to the passage of the air and hence lessen the effectiveness of the fans. Lack of storage room was frequently given as the reason for thus using this space, and there seemed to be in some buildings a real lack of storage space for necessary supplies.

It would be well to provide some central storage place where all unused or broken furniture supplies in use might be stored until needed. Furthermore, a good deal of combustible material would thus be removed from basements and fire hazards would be reduced. In every new building a fireproof closet should be provided in the basement for the storage of paints, oils, and mops which are more or less saturated with oil or wax. It was observed that a fire had started from such materials in one of the closets in the Technical High School. Caution in all things of this sort is of more value than fire escapes.

The grounds about the school buildings were not in good condition. It is hard to understand why ash piles should be banked up against the west side of the old high-school building or in the court of the new Technical High School building. These piles keep the ground and walls damp and are not in keeping with the neatness for which the schools strive. Some of the playgrounds look ragged and unkempt. A systematic attempt ought to be made to put them in order immediately. A number of the buildings leak and need repairing. A janitor can not keep a neat building when leaks mar walls, ceilings, and floors. The roof on the Jefferson building is in poor condition. It not only leaks, but seems rather weak and unsteady. It should be examined for the sake of safety.

Chapter V.

HIGH SCHOOL.

I. PROGRAM OF STUDIES.

The program of the studies of the high school at Elyria, Ohio, is divided into three curricula—the classical, commercial, and industrial. The classical curriculum is described as "a straight road to the college of arts. Colleges generally require four to six credits of foreign languages, Latin or German, or both, one or two of history, two of science, two or three of mathematics and three of English; the remaining units may be elected, as shown below, making a total of 15." The commercial curriculum aims "to give a practical business course and to broaden the mental horizon by valuable supplementary academic studies." The industrial curriculum, according to the printed course of study, leads "directly to such technical schools as Case, Ohio State, or Boston, which will accept four credits in manual training. Without looking forward to the university, it fits the student for more effective work in various industrial lines." The three curricula follow:

CLASSICAL.	COMMERCIAL.	INDUSTRIAL.
English, general history. Latin. Elect one: General science, manual training, or arts and crafts.	English, general history, general science, and manual training, or arts and crafts.	English, general history, general science. Boys: Mechanical drawing (½), pattern making, and molding (½). Girls: Arts and crafts (⅓), drawing, pottery, modelling, basketry, and cooking (⅔).
English. Algebra. Latin. English history.	English. Business forms (½). Bookkeeping (½). Typewriting. Business arithmetic. Industrial history.	English, algebra, horticulture. Boys: Architectural drawing (½); forging, pattern, and founding; elect as an extra (½); electricity or pipe fitting. Girls: Cooking (⅓), drawing (⅓), sewing (⅓).
Plane geometry. Latin or German or both. Elect: Physics or horticulture.	Stenography. Bookkeeping. Commercial geography. English (commercial).	Plane geometry, physics. German. Boys: Machine design, pattern and founding. Girls: Metal work, jewelry, house designing, interior decorating, bookkeeping, or printing, or horticulture.
English. Latin or German or both. Solid geometry and algebra, if preparing for college. Elect: American history or civics or chemistry or physics.	English. Stenography. Commercial law (½). Bookkeeping (½). Elect: German or civics or physics.	English, German, solid geometry, and algebra (for college) or chemistry. Boys: Drafting, machine shop, pattern, and founding, cabinet or agriculture. Girls: Household economy, metal work, jewelry, posters, nursing, care of children, making of children's clothing, or agriculture.

The distribution of the pupils among the several curricula is as follows:

Percentage of pupils enrolled in various curricula.

Curricula.	Total.	Boys.	Girls.
	Per cent.	*Per cent.*	*Per cent.*
Classical	43	34	51
Commercial	18	11	23
Industrial	38	54	23
Mixed	1	1	1

The principle upon which these curricula were formed is obviously a good one. There is not a wide elective system, trusting the work of the pupil to the varied whims and unfounded choices of the pupils. An effort has been made to group the courses of study in an organized series leading to certain specific types of work to be followed after leaving school.

To test the efficiency of this distribution certain questions must be answered: (1) Are too many curricula offered, dissipating the energies of the school? (2) Are too few curricula offered, sacrificing the interests of any considerable numbers of pupils? (3) Are the curricula as they are arranged at present composed of the wisest selection of courses possible under present conditions? (4) Are the pupils receiving adequate guidance in their selection of the particular curriculum which they wish to pursue?

1. Are too many curricula offered?

There are two valid reasons why, under certain circumstances, a very few curricula should be offered. In a small school where there are very few teachers the multiplication of sections dissipates the energies of the school. In a school where all the children come from families of the same class and are bound for similar occupations, multiplication of sections and curricula is unnecessary. Elyria High School fulfills neither of these conditions.

(*a*) *The school is large enough to give many more curricula without dissipating its energies.* In the fall semester, 1916, 129 sections were offered, with the following distribution:

Number of sections offered in the several courses of study.

	Sections.		Sections.
Agriculture II	3	Mathematics I	7
IV	2	II	7
Drawing I	3	III	5
English I	9	IV	1
II	6	Commercial arithmetic II	1
IV	5	German III	4
History I	9	IV	3
III	3	Music I	1
IV	2	II	1
Commercial geography III	1	III	1
Home economics I	4	IV	1
II	8	Science I	3
III	4	III	4
IV	3	IV	2
Latin I	5	Industrial arts I	3
II	3	II	2
III	2	II and III	1
IV	1	III	2
		IV	1

(*b*) *The school draws its pupils from such a variety of homes that wide variation in its program of studies is highly desirable.* A questionnaire was addressed to the pupils of the high school, asking each for the occupation of his father. Replies were received from 590 pupils, with the following results:

Occupation of parents of children in the Elyria High School.

Professional	*52*
Civil engineer	14
Lawyer	8
Minister	7
Teacher	6
Dentist	6
School administrator	2
Electrical engineer	2
Mechanical engineer	2
Chemical engineer	1
Experimental engineer	1
Vocational engineer	1
Probate judge	1
Doctor	1
Trade	*100*
Merchant	15
Traveling salesman	14
Manager	10
Real estate agent	7
Contractor	5
Tailor	5
Bookkeeper	5
Superintendent	5
Live stock broker	4
Grocer	3
Junk dealer	2
Jeweler	2
Miller	2
Florist	2
Purchasing agent	2
Lumber yard man	1
Shoeman	1
Monument dealer	1
Road builder	1
Meat cutter	1
Shipper	1
Tie dealer	1
Stock and bond dealer	1
Hide dealer	1
Wholesale confectioner	1
Branch manager	1
Infirmary superintendent	1
Leather inspector	1
Automobile agent	1
Gas and electric company	1
Insurance agent	1
Paymaster	1
Manufacturing and mechanical industries	*185*
Machinist	36
Carpenter	23
Foreman	20
Mechanic	9
Toolmaker	8
Electrician	8
Factory worker	7
Millwright	6
Molder	6
Blacksmith	6
Plumber	5
Painter	5
Steam engineer	4
Pipe cutter	4
Laborer	4
Stonecutter	3
Baker	2
Automobile tire mender	2
Garage man	2
Lacemaker	2
Pattern maker	2
Roll grinder	2
Inspector	2
Superintendent machine company	1
President foundry company	1
Case hardener	1
Steel mill foreman	1
Motor assembler	1
Roll turner	1
Mason	1
Foundry manager	1
Metal mixer	1
Timekeeper	1
Motor tester	1
Inner tube inspector	1
Polisher	1
Steel range manufacturer	1
Shoe repairer	1

Occupation of parents of children in the Elyria High School—Continued.

Transportation	*35*
Conductor	10
Drayman	8
Motorman	3
Car inspector	3
Dispatcher	2
Chief clerk	2
Agent	2
Porter	1
Brakeman	1
Lineman	1
Section foreman	1
Freight agent	1
Express, postal, telegraph, etc	*13*
Railway postal clerk	8
Mail carrier	3
Telephone operator	2
Public service	*6*
Fireman	1
County officer	1
Fire warden	1
Probation officer juvenile court	1
Public service—Continued.	
Deputy sheriff	1
Member industrial commission	1
Domestic and personal service	*24*
Barber	6
Saloonkeeper	5
Watchman	4
Janitor	3
Chef	1
Owner dance hall	1
Owner theater	1
Owner sample room	1
Owner lunch counter	1
Owner hotel	1
Clerical service	*10*
Clerks	10
Agriculture	*116*
Farmers	111
Gardener	3
Horse trainer	2
Others	*49*
Dead	46
Retired	3

The children in the Elyria High School come, then, from all sorts of homes. The types of occupations rank in the following order:

	Per cent.
Industry	31.2
Agriculture	19.8
Trade	17.1
Professional	8.9
Others	8.7
Transportation	6.0
Personal service	4.1
Express, etc	2.2
Clerical service	1.7
Public service	1.0

2. Are too few curricula offered, sacrificing the interests of any considerable number of pupils?

It is of course out of the question to provide under a system of group instruction the very best possible curriculum for every student. The question is whether or not the classical, commercial, and industrial curricula as they now stand are taking care in the most efficient way of all the large groups of pupils who are likely to engage in similar work after leaving school. The ideal way to test this would be to procure the history of all the children who had entered the high school during the past 10 years, trace their experiences after leaving school, and upon that as a basis obtain an idea of the experiences which it is probable the pupils now in school will have after they leave. So far as the investigator was able to determine, no such information is available. The following data were procured, however, which will serve almost as well:

Occupations which the boys of Elyria High School plan to follow.

Professional	86
Electrical engineer	13
Doctor	13
Lawyer	13
Mechanical engineer	9
Civil engineer	6
Engineering	5
Architect	4
Chemist	4
Musician	3
Journalist	2
Y. M. C. A. worker	2
Actor	1
Radio engineer	1
Mining engineer	1
Music teacher	1
Violin teacher	1
Financier	1
Vocational engineer	1
Minister	1
Forester	1
Army officer	1
Dentist	1
Cartoonist	1
Trade	23
Pharmacist	6
Contractor	4
Merchant	3
Advertiser	2
Clothing business	2
Banker	2
Lumberman	1
Business	1
Oil man	1
Salesman	1
Manufacturing and mechanical industries	33
Draftsman	12
Master mechanic	5
Electrician	3
Machinist	2
Engineer	1
Wireless operator	1
Inspector	1
Printer	1
Pattern maker	1
Tool maker	1
Transportation	2
Railroad man	1
Railroad engineer	1
Clerical occupations	9
Bookkeeper	6
Office boy	1
Stenographer	2
Agriculture	22
Farmer	21
Market gardener	1
Undecided	100
Seniors	16
Juniors	18
Sophmores	29
Freshman	37

Summary of preceding table.

Boys planning to—	Per cent.
Enter professional life	31.1
Enter trade	8.4
Enter industry	12.0
Enter transportation	.7
Engage in clerical work	3.3
Farm	8.0
Undecided	36.2

16 out of 34 seniors, or 47 per cent are undecided.
18 out of 54 juniors, or 33 per cent are undecided.
29 out of 82 sophomores, or 35 per cent are undecided.
37 out of 118 freshmen, or 31 per cent are undecided.

Occupations which the girls of Elyria High School plan to follow.

Professional	*101*
Teaching	82
Missionary	1
Illustrator	2
Author	1
Lawyer	1
Musician	14
Trade	*7*
Business woman	1
Milliner	6
Manufacturing and mechanical industries	*1*
Garage repair work	1

Domestic and personal service	*32*
Nurse	21
Settlement worker	6
Home maker	3
Social secretary	1
Costume designer	1
Clerical service	*75*
Stenographer	60
Bookkeeper	9
Librarian	5
Reporter	1
Undecided	*107*
Seniors	19
Juniors	19
Sophomores	24
Freshmen	35

Summaries of preceding table.

Girls planning to enter—	Per cent.
Professional life	32.2
Trade	2.2
Industry	.3
Personal service	1.0
Clerical service	23.9
Undecided	30.9

19 out of 45 seniors, or 42.2 per cent, are undecided.
19 out of 82 juniors, or 23.2 per cent, are undecided.
24 out of 70 sophomores, or 34.3 per cent, are undecided.
35 out of 117 freshmen, or 30 per cent, are undecided.

Present occupation of the boys who graduated in 1915 and 1916.

Professional	*18*
Engaged in further study	16
Working with a dentist	1
Lawyer	1
Trade	*4*
Working in a bank	4
Manufacturing and mechanical industries	*19*
Draftsmen, National Tool	4
Willis factory	3
Standard Oil	2
Steel plant	3
Garford	3
Rubber factory	1
Working in shop	2
Carpenter	1

Transportation	*0*
Express, etc	*1*
Mail clerk	1
Personal service	*0*
Clerical occupations	*5*
Clerks	5
Miscellaneous	*5*
At home—ill	1
Dead	1
Farming	1
Surveyor	1
Soldier and pugilist	1

Summary of preceding table.

Boys engaged in—	Per cent.
Professional life or in further study	34.6
Trade	7.7
Industry	36.4
Clerical occupations	9.6
Other occupations	11.9

Present occupations of girls who graduated in 1915 and 1916.

Engaged in further study	*33*	*Factory worker*	*2*
		Telephone operator	*1*
At college	17	*Domestic and personal service*	*18*
Business college	9		
Teacher training course	4	At home	13
Studying music	3	Married	5
Professional	*22*	*Clerical helpers*	*19*
Teaching	22	Stenographers	17
		Office work	1
Trade	*2*	Clerk in a store	1
Milliner	2		

Summary of preceding table.

Girls engaged in—	Per cent.
Further study	34.0
Professional work	22.7
Trade	2.0
Factory work	2.0
Telephone operating	1.0
Domestic service	18.0
Clerical work	19.5

Present occupations of older brothers who at least entered high school.

In college	*28*	*Trade*	*20*
Professional	*11*		
Architect	5	Business	10
Teacher	2	Salesman	5
Artist	1	Banker	2
Civil engineer	1	Broker	1
Chemist	1	Insurance	1
Minister	1	Druggist	1
Industry	*99*	*Transportation*	*4*
		Public service	*13*
In industry	84		
Electrician	6	Public service	7
Surveyor	4	Army and Navy	6
Carpenter	2		
Radio-operator	1	*Clerical occupations*	*26*
Plumber	1	*Agriculture*	*22*
Printer	1		

Summary of preceding table.

Older brothers engaged in—	Per cent.
Further study	12.4
Professional	4.9
Trade	9.0
Industry	41.1
Transportation	1.7
Public service	5.8
Clerical work	1[illegible].6
Farming	9.9

Present occupations of older sisters who at least entered high school.

Further study	*17*
Professional	*36*
Teachers	35
Organist	1
Personal service	*99*
Married	75
Keeping house	21
Nurse	3

Clerical occupations	*53*
Stenographers	52
Librarian	1
Telephone operators	*5*
Miscellaneous	*5*

Summary of preceding table.

Girls engaged in—	Per cent.
Further study	7.9
Professional work	16.6
Personal service (married 34.9 per cent)	44.7
Stenography and office work	24.2

The occupations of all pupils who entered with present senior class.

BOYS.	
Still in school	*47*
In Elyria H. S.	41
In business college	2
Studying in Paris	1
In school elsewhere	3
Trade	*12*
Drug store	5
Grocery	2
Furniture dealer	1
Bakery	1
Bicycle shop	1
Lake Terminal Co	1
Office steel plant	1

BOYS—continued.	
Industry	*18*
In Willis plant	9
Carpenter	3
Lace factory	2
Steel plant	1
Garford	1
Goodyear	1
Garage	1
Transportation	*5*
Personal service	*1*
Bell boy	1
Agriculture	*5*
Unknown	*4*
Loafing	*1*

The occupations of all pupils who entered with present senior class—**Continued.**

GIRLS.	
Still in school	*59*
In Elyria H. S	53
Business college	2
In school elsewhere	3
Graduated	1
Industry	*3*
In factory	3

GIRLS—continued.	
Personal service	*9*
At home	6
Married	2
Nurse	1
Telephone operator	*8*
Clerical work	*9*
Unknown	*1*

Summary of preceding table.

	Per cent of boys.	Per cent of girls.
Still in school	50.6	66.1
Trade	12.9	----
Industry	19.4	3.3
Transportation	5.4	----
Telephone	----	9.0
Personal service	1.1	10.1
Clerical work	----	10.1
Agriculture	5.4	----
Unknown	4.3	1.1
Loafing	1.1	----

These five series of data afford about as good bases on which to predict the probable occupations of the pupils in Elyria High School as it is possible for us to find, for the records of the past are not complete.

What the boys and girls of Elyria are likely to do.

Types of occupation.	Parents' occupation.	What the pupils say they will do.	What the graduates of 1915 and 1916 are doing.	What those who left the 1917 class are doing.	What older brothers and sisters are now doing.
BOYS.					
Professional and college	8.9	48.6	34.6	....	17.3
Trade	17.1	13.1	7.7	25.8	9.0
Industry	31.2	18.9	36.4	38.9	44.1
Transportation	6.0	1.2	....	10.8	1.7
Telegraph, etc	2.2	....	1.9	....	....
Public service	1.0	....	1.9	2.2	5.8
Personal service	4.1	....	....	....	....
Clerical occupations	1.7	5.4	9.6	....	11.6
Agriculture	19.8	12.8	1.9	10.8	9.9
GIRLS.					
Teaching and college	....	32.2	56.7	....	24.5
Trade	....	2.2	2.0	....	....
Industry	....	.3	2.0	10.0	3.3
Telephone, etc	....	....	1.0	27.0	9.0
Home makers, nurses, etc	....	31.9	18.0	30.3	10.1
Clerical occupations	....	23.9	19.5	30.3	10.1

On the basis of these data it is probable that most of the boys and girls in Elyria High School will fall into the following well-defined groups and that each group will have a sufficient number of members to warrant consideration:

(1) Boys who will go to college—
  (*a*) In the classical course, as in Oberlin or Kenyon.
  (*b*) In the general course, as at Ohio State, Western Reserve, Ohio Wesleyan, etc.
  (*c*) In the engineering or scientific work, as at Case or Ohio State.
(2) Girls who will engage in further study—
  (*a*) In the classical course, as (1*a*).
  (*b*) In the general course, as (1*b*).
  (*c*) In the Ohio Normal School, at Kent.
  (*d*) In the Elyria training course.
  (*e*) In the Oberlin Conservatory of Music.
(3) Boys who will engage in industry.
(4) Boys who will engage in business, mostly clerk work.
(5) Boys who will farm.
(6) Girls who will teach without further preparation.
(7) Girls who will be married or help at home.
(8) Girls who will engage in business, mostly as clerks or stenographers.

Having these well-defined groups in the student body, let us now consider the manner in which they are served in the present curriculum of the school. In investigating this question each pupil was asked why he had chosen to enter the curriculum which he was following. The results are given in the following tables:

Reasons given by boys for electing the various curricula.

Classical	95
Planning to go to college	63
"May go to college; and if I do, I wish to prepare"	12
Gives the best general education	12
To be a musician	3
To help in specific work, such as pharmacist, doctor, lawyer, writer, etc	11
Vague and indefinite reasons	11
Commercial	28
To engage in office work	21
Vague and indefinite	7
Industrial	146
"Fits me for the work I am planning to do"	63
"Because I like it"	34
To prepare for college	17
To prepare for farming	14
To gain an idea of various lines of work	10
Vague and indefinite	16

Reasons given by girls for electing the several curricula.

Classical	156
Planning to go to college	66
May go to college, and would like to be prepared	33
Prepares for teaching	22
Prepares for the normal school	4
Have to have four years of language for the Oberlin Conservatory of Music	12
Best general training. (One girl said: "Best training for an undecided person")	13
Best training for a prospective nurse	6
Vague and indefinite	18
Commercial	76
To prepare for stenography or bookkeeping	56
To go to business college	3
Vague and indefinite. ("By taking this course. I'll get it rather than let it get me, because I am poor in mathematics")	14
Couldn't stay more than two years in high school	3
Industrial	69
"Because I like it"	27
To be a milliner, housewife, etc	29
Best for a nurse	3
Best general training	3
Vague and indefinite	7

Under the present conditions, choices of curriculum are made for widely varying reasons. All who plan to go to college or normal school (except the engineers) select the classical course. Those who are undecided select the classical course. A smaller number that have other fairly definite ambitions, go into the other lines. There are more significant groups of pupils than there are curricula provided. This brings us to our third question:

3. Are the curricula as offered as efficient as they might be in meeting the future needs of the pupils therein registered?

The classical curriculum enrolls those who are planning to go to college (except the engineering students) and those who think that there is some slight probability of their going on to further academic work. It enrolls boys and girls who are planning to go to the conservatory of music, girls planning to teach, with or without additional training. It also enrolls a group of doubtful students. How well does it meet their needs?

The entrance requirements of the colleges in northern Ohio most often attended by Elyria High School graduates are as follows:

College entrance requirements (arts college) in northern Ohio.

Units required.	Oberlin.	Ohio State.	Ohio Wesleyan.	Kenyon.			Western Reserve.
				(1)	(2)	(3)	
English	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
Mathematics	3	2	3	3	3	3	3
Foreign languages (Latin and Greek, 2)	4						
Latin and Greek				4			
Foreign language		4	4	2	4	4	4
History and civics	1	1	1	1	2	1	
Science	1	1			1	2	
Elective	3	4	4	2	2	2	5

Oberlin (8 miles from Elyria) and the classical course at Kenyon require two years of work in either Latin or Greek. The others allow the candidate to present any four units of foreign-language work, provided, of course, that it is presented in blocks of not less than two units. Elyria High School, through its present offering in the classical curriculum, is compelling every child who plans to go to an arts college to offer the Oberlin program of entrance. This is an injustice, in our opinion, for the following reasons: (1) Three representative northern Ohio colleges specify only four units of language work without specifying ancient languages; (2) only the group bound for Oberlin or Kenyon are thus served; (3) those planning to go to the normal school are compelled to study ancient languages, which will be of relatively little help to a teacher. All that is required for entrance is graduation from a standard four-year high school. (4) Those planning to enter the conservatory of music need four units of foreign language. The requirements run as follows: English (3); mathematics (2); foreign languages (4); history and civics (1); science (1); foreign languages, science, history, solid geometry, advanced algebra, or fourth-year English (4). These music students who obviously need much study of modern foreign languages are thus forced to study ancient languages for at least two years. (5) The curriculum as at present arranged is unjust to those who are undecided and to that great group of ambitious high-school students who start a curriculum which they are destined never to finish. Of every 100 boys who entered Elyria High School in the past five classes but 19 to 26 have graduated; of 100 girls, only 35 to 56 graduated. (See table, page 90.) The significant results of the study of ancient languages come only in later years of study, particularly in the upper high-school classes and in further work in college. The boy or girl who drops out during the high-school course has pitifully little result for his effort.

It seems wise, therefore, for the Elyria High School to divide its classical curriculum into at least two parts. One, preparing for the classical course at Oberlin and Kenyon, should remain substantially as the curriculum is at present, with the possible addition of another year of work in English. The other should substitute two years of some modern foreign language for the two years of work in beginning Latin and Cæsar. This would do no harm to the college-preparatory group and would be of more benefit to the music students and to those who are compelled to leave. There is every reason to suppose that another curriculum is needed. Many of the girls elect the classical curriculum with the idea of using it as preparation either for teaching directly after leaving high school or as preparation for the normal school work. Those who made this survey have grave doubts as to whether either a foreign language or abstract mathematics, such as algebra and geometry, furnishes the best preparation for prospective teachers within the brief time involved. We suggest, therefore, that the schools' officials discuss the type of preparation needed for that line of work with the authorities at the Kent Normal School and with the teacher of the "training class" in Elyria. Surely such preparation would not be had in its highest form in the present classical curriculum.

The commercial curriculum enrolls but one significant group of students, those who plan to enter business as clerks, bookkeepers, or stenographers. It appears that a few students are taking the commercial and other curricula with the idea of going to a business college. Why is this?

The industrial curriculum enrolls a variety of groups. They include boys planning: To enter the engineering or scientific courses in college, to enter industry, to become farmers, market gardeners, and dairymen; and girls planning to specialize in various phases of home economics or art work, or to conduct homes of their own or to help at home. The curriculum as at present arranged is not sufficiently diversified to meet all these needs. Those preparing for the engineering schools need a certain distinct distribution of courses. For example, the Case School of Applied Science requires the following for entrance:

	Units.
Algebra to quadratics	1.0
Quadratics, binomial theorem, and progressions	.5
Plane geometry	1.0
Solid geometry	.5
English	3.0
German, French, or Spanish	2.0
Physics	1.0
Chemistry	1.0
Optional (including mechanical drawing and shopwork)	5.0

The curriculum as at present arranged does not quite meet this need, requiring a choice between solid geometry and algebra and chemistry in the senior year, both of which are needed for entrance to Case. With this exception, the curriculum is satisfactory for this group. In all probability this curriculum, with its five optional units, four of which may be in drawing and shopwork, will also prove to be a good course for those who plan to enter industry. The nearer the two groups can be kept together the better, for undoubtedly there are many boys who plan to go to Case or Ohio State who will be compelled to enter industry before graduation from the high school. The English, mathematics, science, and industrial work all have great value for this group.

More than 80 boys in the Elyria High School live in rural communities. Nearly one-fourth of the older brothers of these children, who at least entered high school, are farming. A separate curriculum is needed for this group.

On the basis of the experience of previous classes, it seems that a large percentage of girls should have more work in home economics, and that a complete curriculum designed to prepare for home making should be devised. The value of mathematics, such as algebra and geometry, for girls preparing to be home makers is doubtful; chemistry and physics, more adapted to the needs of girls, should be introduced. Where there are four sections of physics and two of chemistry, one section in each weight will be specially adapted to the needs of girls.

In particular the course is weak in failing to provide as much as possible for the boys and girls who are forced to drop out of school. The teachers and administrators of high schools must keenly realize that less than one-half of the children who enter as freshmen will ever graduate. Elyria High School is no exception to this rule, as the following shows:

Elimination in Elyria High School in classes of 1912–1916 considering only those who entered with the class.

Students.	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916
Number of students who—					
Entered with the class	196	183	200	180	134
Left at end of first year	159	152	174	151	99
Left at end of second year	104	116	127	116	83
Left at end of third year	85	88	106	93	65
Graduated on time	57	59	68	69	40
Graduated one year later	11	12	16	11	....
Graduated two years late	....	2	4	....	....
Graduated one year early	....	....	4	....	....
Total number of graduates	68	73	92	80	....

Elimination in Elyria High School during the past five years, based upon every 100 that entered.

Students.	Total.					Boys.					Girls.				
	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916
Number remaining at end of—															
First year	82	83	87	84	74	81	74	79	74	74	82	88	93	93	73
Second year	53	63	64	64	62	50	61	55	51	62	55	65	69	78	[illegible]
Third year	43	48	53	52	49	37	39	49	33	49	49	54	56	69	[illegible]
Fourth year	29	32	34	38	30	19	25	26	20	19	39	40	40	56	35

The group that seems to be treated with the least consideration is the group which leaves school before graduation; those pupils receive the smallest return for their efforts, in proportion to time spent. This group must of necessity be more or less neglected. Any plan, however, which will strengthen and make more vital the work of the earlier years will improve the arrangement of the program of studies. The commercial curriculum and the agricultural phase of the industrial curriculum especially sin in this particular. No vital commercial work is given in the first year, nor is there any in agriculture; yet of the older brothers who are farmers, 11 graduated and 11 did not; and of the older brothers who are in business, 10 graduated and 10 did not. Of 52 older sisters engaged in office work, only 32 graduated. Further treatment of this problem will be found under the section which discusses the establishment of a junior high school.

4. Do the pupils receive adequate guidance in their choice of a curriculum?

The organization of studies is into a series of curricula, each devised to meet some definite need in an effort to steer between the elective system and the system of hard and fast requirements. It seeks to avoid random and aimless selection of courses of the one and at the same time to eliminate the hard and fast nature of the other, which has its only justification in poverty or in a belief in formal discipline. Under the curriculum plan each pupil has free choice of the general line which he wishes to pursue, but having made this choice, he is compelled to follow that specific line of work for the rest of his years in high school that he may achieve the results which follow thoroughness and continuity of attack. It is exceedingly important for the success of this system, however, that the pupils receive just, impartial, and adequate guidance in their selection of a curriculum.

It is necessary that Elyria High School take more vigorous steps in this direction in the future. At present a little booklet giving the curricula offered, the words of description quoted, and certain other rules and regulations are distributed to the children of the eighth grade shortly before they are ready to enter high school. The city superintendent visits each eighth-grade class and makes a little talk. The teachers try to help. This guidance is insufficient. There are several reasons for this. The teachers in the grades are not in possession of sufficient information to guide their children wisely. One teacher told the investigator, with some pride, that nearly all of her children had elected the classical course, so that they might enter college. Upon being asked if she knew which colleges in northern Ohio demanded such preparation she admitted that she did not know, but "supposed that they all did." Too many of the children, in answering the questionnaire previously mentioned, were indefinite and vague in their statement of the reasons which prompted them to enter a particular course. This is natural, since they had never been put in possession of sufficient facts to warrant a satisfactory judgment. Further, the parents need enlightenment in this matter. Too often the children are advised by parents who have not sufficient facts at hand to know which curriculum a child ought to elect. Still further, children need to be protected from the propaganda advanced by alert, intelligent, but too often misguided and partial teachers. Too many children have been enticed into classical or industrial curricula by organized campaigns carried on by teachers of these subjects. The only remedy is to acquaint teachers, parents, and pupils alike with such facts as have been determined. It would be highly desirable for the board of education to have a booklet prepared giving each curriculum in detail, just what it leads to, just what preparation is needed, what the rewards are likely to be, what modifications, if any, can be made. Some of the history of previous classes could well be introduced, and the probable experience of present classes in this light could be predicted. Distributing this material well in advance of entrance to high school, encouraging discussion of it in class, at home, and at parent-teacher meetings, and eliminating scattered and casual recommendation, would help to prevent misfits, to put square pegs in square holes, and round pegs in round holes. At least serious discussion of this problem should occupy several faculty meetings. It can not be hoped that every child will be served with equal adequacy, but only that more children will be served efficiently than at present.

The following are therefore recommended:

1. That the present three curricula be expanded and molded more directly with certain results in mind. The following is suggested as a minimum:
    a. The classical course entrance curriculum, preparing for Oberlin and Kenyon.
    b. The general curriculum, preparing for other colleges of arts.

c. The scientific college preparatory curriculum, preparing for Case School of Applied Science, Ohio State, and the like. This course should also provide for most of the boys preparing for industry.
d. The commercial curriculum, arranged substantially as at present.
e. The agricultural curriculum, giving more thorough work in agriculture.
f. The home economics curriculum, giving a definite line of work for home makers, eliminating abstract mathematics, and including science work better designed for the needs of girls.

2. That the authorities consider the need of a curriculum better adapted than these to the needs of prospective teachers.
3. That the authorities consider whether there is sufficient facility and demand to warrant a special course in arts and crafts.
4. That every effort be made to put more vital work in the earlier years of the high school.
5. That the board of education, in cooperation with the high-school faculty, publish a booklet giving much more detailed information about the courses offered and probable demands and results, in order that more adequate guidance may result; and that the high-school faculty consider this problem with care.

It is recommended that the various curricula be made up somewhat as follows:

YEARS.	CLASSICAL.	GENERAL.	SCIENTIFIC.	COMMERCIAL.	AGRICULTURAL.	HOME ECONOMICS.
First year	English. Science. Latin. History.	English. Science. Modern language. History.	English. Science. History. Industrial work.	English. History. Science. Commercial work.	English. History. Science. Agriculture.	English. History. Science. Home economics.
Second year.	English. Algebra. Latin. History.	English. Algebra. Modern language. History.	English. Algebra. Economics and industrial history. Industrial work.	English. Business arithmetic. Industrial history and commercial work. (2)	English. Arithmetic and accounts Industrial work. Agriculture.	English. Arithmetic and accounts Horticulture. Home economics.
Third year.	English. Plane geometry. Latin. German or physics.	English. Plane geometry. Modern language. Elective.	English. Plane geometry. Physics. German or industrial arts.	English. Commercial geography. Bookkeeping. Stenography.	English. Physics. Agriculture. Elective.	English. Household physics. Home economics. Elective.
Fourth year.	English. Latin. Solid geometry and algebra. Elective.	English. Modern language. Elective (2).	English. Solid geometry and algebra. Chemistry. German or industrials arts	English. Commercial work (2). Elective (1).	English. Chemistry. Agriculture. Elective (1).	English. Household chemistry. Home economics. Elective (1).

SCIENCE.

There are three courses offered in science, not including the agriculture—which is discussed separately—general science in the first year, physics in the third, and chemistry in the fourth. The work was elected by 190 students, 57 electing general science, 96 physics, and 37 chemistry. The textbooks are: Snyder—General Science; McPherson and Henderson—First Course in Chemistry; and Hoadly—Physics.

There are two outstanding needs in the science work—better equipment and a wider application of the work covered in class.

The general science is taught in a room not well adapted to the teaching of science. It is merely an ordinary classroom with one row of seats left out to provide a little space for experimentation. A few additional closets are available for extra material. The physics work is carried on in a very poorly lighted laboratory in the oldest of three buildings. The chemistry laboratory, while none too light, is better than the physics. In the near future, however, it will either have to be moved or extensive repairs must be made, for the plumbing is giving way to the attacks of acids that have been passing down the sinks for years. The result of these conditions has been to limit the usefulness of the other laboratory equipment. In the general science, the very nature of the room compels the experiments to be demonstrations by the teacher and not experiments by the class. In physics, while there is considerable excellent material provided in sufficient quantity for 24 to work at once, the bad light limits its usefulness. The chemistry classes are not as bad off now as they will be in a year or two.

The way in which the science work in Elyria High School can be most improved, however, is in a wider application to the life which the pupils are to lead. The work in general science gives only about 15 out of 450 pages to problems of health, probably the most-needed study in the entire program. Physics is taught largely in a theoretical way. A topic is taken up; the class is given a series of directions for experiment; a double period or more is spent in the laboratory; then its significance is treated. There is relatively little excursion work and only a meager amount of direct application to any of the growing industries of Elyria. The work in chemistry is open to the same criticism.

There are two ways of remedying this difficulty. The science teachers can, through conference, discussion, and study, enliven their work far more than they are now doing. It is perfectly feasible for them to give more time to applications and to allow the class to spend a considerable portion of the time on the use of the work in question in the local industries.

It would be far more easy, however, to make application of the science work if the classes were composed of more homogeneous groups. Three great groups need the science work particularly; boys who will need it in industry, boys who will use it on the farm, and girls who will need it in the home. Under the present arrangement it would be practicable to divide the sections in such a way that persons with similar interests would take the work at the same time. For instance, in two of the four sections of physics there is a majority of girls; in one, 18 girls and 6 boys; in another, 14 girls and 9 boys. Ten girls are taking chemistry with 27 boys. It is suggested that the six sections of chemistry and physics be divided as follows: That one section of physics and chemistry, each, be taught with special reference to the home, one section with special reference to the farm, and one section with special reference to industry.

The separation of the pupils into groups of this sort ought to improve the work. It will continually remind the teacher that there are applications to be made. There need be no vital change in the content of the course. The needed change will be made by more and better applications of the material studied.

We also suggest that a greater importance be granted to the study of health. The high school has no higher duty.

GERMAN.

Two years of German are offered in the Elyria High School, 113 taking first-year German in the third year and 53 taking second-year German in the fourth year. Students who wish to take four years of language are compelled to elect two years of ancient language, whether they wish to take it or not. Elyria is particularly fortunate in having teachers who speak the German language, whose pronunciation is excellent, and whose knowledge of German does not stop with the language. We believe that Elyria should make more of modern languages. We suggest that four years of one modern language be given. It may be that with additional time, the teachers, who are amply prepared for it, may be able to make more use of the "direct method" and still rest assured of proper college preparation.

LATIN.

Four years are offered in Latin, the usual sequence of Cæsar, Cicero, and Vergil being followed. In the fall semester there were 101 beginning Latin, 64 reading Cæsar, 31 reading Cicero, and only 19 reading Vergil. Four out of every five who begin this course never begin the fourth year's work. If the rewards of the study of Latin were to come early in the work, this would not cause comment. It is believed that the results from the study of Latin come in the increased appreciation for the culture and literature of the

Romans and in the added knowledge of our own tongue which comes from a familiarity with the language which makes up so large a part of it. The first value comes only to a small number, roughly 20 per cent. The second comes only after methods of teaching are employed definitely to attain that end. We suggest that the Latin teachers strive eagerly for two goals: (1) To keep out of Latin the children who ought never to take it and (2) by early and constant effort to show children how the Latin helps the English. This ought to be a part of every classroom exercise.

ENGLISH.

Three years' work in English is offered, the usual program being to omit it in the third year. It is taken by 231 in the first year, 158 in the second year, and 106 in the fourth year. Twenty pupils in the third year are taking a course called commercial English and salesmanship. Literature is commonly studied three days a week; composition, oral and written, two days. Herrick and Damon's New Composition and Rhetoric is used in the composition work throughout the school, although some of the beginning classes are using Lewis and Hosic's new book.

The literature work is arranged as follows:

First year:
- First half—
  - Ashmun, Prose Literature for Secondary Schools.
  - Ashmun, Modern Prose and Poetry for Secondary Schools.
- Second half—
  - Ivanhoe.
  - Merchant of Venice.

Second year:
- Silas Marner.
- Julius Caesar.
- Speeches of Washington, Webster, and Lincoln.
- Idyls of the King.
- Vision of Sir Launfal.
- Rime of the Ancient Mariner.

Fourth year:
- Macaulay, Essay on Samuel Johnson.
- Shakespeare, Macbeth.
- Hawthorne, House of Seven Gables.
- Selected American Poems.
- Holmes, Autocrat of the Breakfast Table.

Several things stand out in striking manner in this course:

1. *The work is not as efficiently related within itself as it might be.* This is shown in several ways. There is not sufficient correlation between the work in oral composition and the work of the remainder of the week. As shown below in the study of methods of teaching, one of the most striking things is the brief and fragmentary char-

acter of the answers given by the classes; the English classes on days when oral expression was not definitely provided for were no exceptions to this rule. The children talk when they are having "oral expression." The rest of the time they do not.

The same thing is true of the relationship of the classics studied. If the teachers were to take advantage of every opportunity, there would be more reference to other works that had gone before. In the classes in which comparisons were made, and the various works of literature were connected, better work was done.

There is not sufficient emphasis upon the use to which the English classics are to be put. Obviously, the study of English literature should have as its main object the instillation of a love of reading, particularly the reading of books of the best sort. The Elyria High School properly starts with two collections of rather short selections; and then settles down to intensive work for the rest of the course. When children spend 19 weeks on Ivanhoe and The Merchant of Venice progress must of necessity be so slow that the children do not "see the forest for the trees." Much time is spent on the author's life, unessential details of construction, and unimportant niceties which might just as well be spent on much more extensive reading of a pleasurable sort. We suggest that many more works be read, just for the fun of reading them.

By starting with the short selections at the beginning, it is clear that the teachers realize that the children have interests of their own, and that the old-time way of beginning with the long novel was not successful. The particular selections which are used as a beginning are too abstract and too much without adventure to appeal to the average high-school beginner. We suggest that these dry and prosy selections be reserved until later in the course, when the student will have developed more taste for them. Begin with modern short stories and read "Treasure Island" before very long.

There is probably not sufficient connection between writing or speaking and the study of technicalities of writing. Grammar as such is the study of the elementary school. Rhetoric comes in the high school. It is hardly likely that the errors warned against early in the course will be recognized in their new setting late in the course. We usually learn when the need for learning arises. If grammar were reserved until need for it arises in connection with compositions, the problem of teaching it efficiently would be greatly simplified.

2. *There is a healthy tendency to make literature more readable.* Burke has given way to Washington, Webster, and Lincoln; the Idyls of the King to American poems. Milton's Shorter Poems have been postponed until college, and pieces of literature have been deemed worthy of reading which are less than 100 pages in length.

3. *There is excellent use of objective aids.* Bulletin boards are found in every room. Illustrative material gathered from current literature, pictures from all sources, maps, charts, etc., are found in the English classrooms in profusion.

4. *There is great need for experimentation.* There is little of the growth apparent in the English department which comes from the constant contact of alert and progressive teachers with one another. Improvements there undoubtedly have been. Good devices are unquestionably in use. But the teachers are isolated from one another. One has all the senior English; another all the sophomore; several others divide the freshman Latin and English and history. There should be more division of the work and more departmental meetings, in order that good ideas may be disseminated and grow.

5. *Every class should be a class in English.* Good habits in written and oral English can not be gained from school work by occasional lessons in one subject only. Every teacher throughout the school should require and demand accuracy in expression. Yet this is not done at the Elyria High School, and it has rarely been accomplished in an incidental way. We recommend that the English department accept this as a problem for study. It seems to us that the problem for proper cooperation in English has never been adequately solved.

MATHEMATICS.

There were 352 pupils studying algebra, 92 studying plane geometry and 27 studying solid geometry. More were studying beginning algebra than any other single subject. This was due to the fact that in previous years algebra had been given only in the second year of the high school, and in 1916–17 it was advanced to the first. Next year there will be a small group electing algebra and a proportionately larger group in geometry.

The mathematics work seems to be well done so far as it goes. There is little application of the work done, but that is not usually found in high-school mathematics. Much of it is abstract, but that is what teachers usually want.

The Monroe algebra test and the Peabody algebra test were both given. The Peabody test was given by the writer personally. The Monroe test was left to be given March 1, when it was designed to be given. Through a mistake in the time element, the test was not given as directed, and of course the results are meaningless.

The Peabody test is better adapted to those who have had algebra a year. There were no pupils of this grade in Elyria. It was given to those who were just beginning their second half-year's work.

The results, compared with pupils of similar advancement, are as follows:

Elyria pupils in algebra compared with others.

	A1	A2	A3	A4	B4	C4	D4
	Per cent.	*Per cent.*	*Per cent.*	*Per cent.*	*Per cent.*	*Per cent.*	*Per cent.*
Eight schools with 522 pupils of other cities	57.0	51.1	33.9	44.2	41.8	32.3	48.0
Elyria (Ohio) pupils	22.3	24.7	5.3	22.1	26.4	3.0	40.0

Elyria is not doing the work that the schools in Nashville, Paducah, Owensboro, Whitesville, and Little Rock are doing. Considerable difference was found in the work of the individual teachers, but that is a matter to be handled by the principal and is not of special interest to the general public.

II. METHODS OF TEACHING.

Despite the emphasis that is placed upon matters pertaining to administration, the program of studies, physical equipment, school buildings, and the like, there is no more important phase of high-school work than the methods of teaching. It is here that the success or failure of a particular line of work rests. The major efforts of the principal should be directed to increasing efficiency here. Neither school law, social pressure, nor finances stand in the way of improvement in this particular.

Realizing this, the observer made every effort to obtain as comprehensive and as accurate knowledge as possible of the methods of teaching used by teachers in the Elyria High School. This is difficult to obtain. Classroom observation at best is bound to be unsatisfactory. Teachers unaccustomed to visitors are apt to be nervous, especially in the face of a *survey*. A stranger in the room often disturbs the pupils. Chance observations of scattered recitations or portions of recitations often fail to reveal facts in their true light because of the necessary lack of familiarity on the part of the observer with what has gone before. These difficulties, while not eliminated, were minimized in the following ways:

1. Before starting the survey the teachers were called together and acquainted in a general way with the plans of the observer. They were told that their difficulties were appreciated; that while of necessity they were being viewed in a critical light, they were before no "court of star chamber"; that every effort would be made to judge their work by standards that all would accept; and that before any definite recommendations were made, sufficient concrete data would be advanced to substantiate the point. The teachers were asked to pay no attention to the observer, who promised to try to make himself as inconspicuous as possible.

2. During the earlier days of the investigation and as much as possible during the later days, the observer entered each classroom with or before the class, took an inconspicuous place in the rear of the room, and remained there until the close of the period. Fifty-three complete recitations were observed in this fashion. In some of the work, particularly in language and mathematics classes and in laboratory periods, two and sometimes three classes were visited in the same hour. Twenty-one classes were visited in this way. Toward the close of the investigation several tours of the school were made, the observer remaining but a few minutes in each room, verifying certain conclusions from previous investigation and watching the progress and connectedness of the work.

3. To obtain a more complete knowledge of the work, the observer made a practice of seeing the teacher teach the same section for three or four days in the same subject. In this way the continuity of the work was seen, and abnormalities of a single recitation were seen more nearly in their true light.

Five variations of classroom procedure were clearly distinguishable in the Elyria High School, namely, variations in—

(1) The responses given by the pupils,
(2) The relative emphasis on memory and on thought work,
(3) The responsibility for the work shared by teacher and pupil,
(4) The application of material studied in class, and
(5) The interest of the pupils in the class work.

These are to be considered by the faculty of the high school in a thoughtful way to determine if such variation is efficient, to magnify the strong points, and to eliminate the weak ones. There are a few considerations in connection with each, however, that deserve mention.

(*1*) *The responses given by pupils.*—Other things being equal, we should assume that longer answers by the pupils would be desirable. It should make for continuity of thought and better oral expression. It seems hardly right, in English for example, to devote a day a week to oral composition and then for the remainder of the time to discourage it. Short answers, however, are not necessarily a bad thing. There is no necessary objection to a rapid-fire review or to a hurried survey of a field. Some of the short answers were the direct result of bad questioning habits on the part of the teachers, and where this is the case the short answer should be considered a signal of danger. These are discussed in order:

(*a*) In the classes where short answers are found many of the teachers have a habit of asking questions that end in "isn't it," "doesn't it," and "isn't that the way it was," etc. Questions of this type are indications of careless preparation, careless thinking, or they may mean that the teacher is really lecturing while he thinks he is conducting a recitation. Almost no effort is required of the pupil, either in remembering material or organizing it. Illustrations of this are the following:

"A form of government, isn't that what it was?"
"You found it worth while, didn't you?"
"Then, it was a matter of heredity rather than environment, wasn't it?"
"Common working place, wasn't it?"
"He has thus far succeeded, hasn't he?"
"The war was not over here, was it?"
"He sums it all up, doesn't he?"
"It tells how the trees are arranged, doesn't it?"
"There was a dislodged stone, wasn't there?"
"They usually were privileged characters, weren't they?"
"Then, we practically agree, don't we?"
"Your figure proves it a trapezoid, doesn't it?"

A small number of questions of this type in a recitation can do but little harm, and most teachers ask a rhetorical question occasionally. But when they are numerous they certainly do no good and frequently develop bad habits. In general, a question of this kind might just as well not be asked. Nine times out of ten but one answer is possible. The teacher, in fact, makes an assertion to which the class lends passive assent.

In some of the classes in the Elyria High School questioning of this sort is too frequent to be consistent with efficiency. Four teachers in particular sin in this direction. One teacher, for instance, asked 26 questions of this sort in a 45-minute period, another 18, another 21, and another 16.

(*b*) Possibly more important still in the encouragement of short and incomplete answers is the inverted question that ends in "what." The teacher who asks this question has in mind not a query to be answered, but a particular answer to be achieved. The teacher thinks first of the answer wanted, repeats a portion of it, and then calls upon the class to fill out the thought. The following series of questions and answers from an English class illustrates the point:

Q. Then from there he went to what place?
A. Salem.
Q. What for?
A. To prepare for college.
Q. Under whom?
A. Worcester.
Q. He went where?
A. To Bowdoin.
Q. Longfellow was not such an intimate friend, was he?
A. No.
Q. On his finishing, he went where?
A. To Salem.

Here is another series of questions that gave the same results, so far as brevity of answers is concerned:

"He held most of his positions through friendship with whom?"
"And the great product of his writing was what?"
"His whole aim was to move back to what place?"
"If you had noticed, you would have found what about his relations?"
"Obliged to move to what little place?"
"Nearer still to what place?"
"The name of his home was what?"

Other questions to show the same type, which was found in almost every class in the school, are the following:

"One thing we learned about fungus yesterday? Another? What about them? They are what?"
"The purpose of this experiment is what?"
"You put on here what? That will be where? That will be put where?"
"It all goes back to what?"
"That will be the volume at what temperature?"
"Give me the formula for an acid salt. That is the name for what?"
"That is needed to get what? Talk about what agents?"
"Swegen was followed by what ruler?"
"Forte modifies what?"

It seems that sufficient evidence has been given to show the seriousness of this habit. When the "what" or "whom" is placed at the end of the question, the teacher has already done a good share of the work; the sentence and setting are all prepared; the pupil has but to put one little word into the place that is waiting for it. This does not require great ability, nor does it tend to develop it.

Nearly every teacher in the school, to a greater or less degree, has the habit of asking questions like this. One teacher asked 42 questions of this sort in a single period, several others between 30 and 40. In a few cases the observer would wait as long as five minutes for a single question of another type.

In one of the teachers the habit had become so ingrained that it even appeared in a written assignment, which was to be copied by the children from the board. The question was, "Even without knowledge of the historical setting, the reader of this address must feel what effects?"

(*c*) Another factor in encouraging brief and incomplete answers is the habit that several teachers have of asking questions that are sentences with a word or two left out, requiring through manner or gesture the pupils to fill in the gaps. It is about the same as the inverted "what question" with the what left out. Such teaching reminds one of the puzzle page or of the "completion tests" of the psychologist. The teacher frames the puzzle or the test; the pupil supplies the missing word. It is needless to remark that in this case the teacher does too much of the work. Illustrations of this habit follow (the portions spoken by the pupils being put in parentheses):

What did they mean? The right to (secede) from the (union).

That means (secession). The States tried to make it (null and void).

Would there have been any dispute if the constitution had definitely provided certain things that the States might (do) or might not (do)?

Was the constitution for or against the (Virginia and Kentucky resolutions)?

The things that are (constitutional) and the things that are un-(constitutional).

After Boston he went to (Brookfarm).

This habit is not found as frequently as some of the others, but, nevertheless, it is found all too often.

(*d*) Another factor that contributes to the brief answers is the habit which many of the teachers have of repeating the answer given by the pupil. If the teacher were to repeat the answer exactly as it is given, the habit would not be so harmful, as it would make the teacher realize the essential incompleteness of that answer. But the teacher, in his eagerness, usually picks on the fragment extracted from the pupil, resets it, and gives it forth in a more complete sentence or in a new application. All this is work that the pupil should do. Another danger arising from the repeated answer is that the teacher, in his eagerness to hear the correct answer, often fails to note mistakes. The pupil is encouraged to "bluff" an answer or give a portion of it—just enough to set the teacher going again.

In every class where the answers are fragmentary or brief the observer found that the teacher was repeating the answer. Nearly all the teachers did this more or less. So far as the observer could estimate, one teacher repeated practically every answer given by the class. He counted over 60 successive repetitions before turning his attention to something else. He observed five recitations with more than 60 answers repeated by the teacher, four with from 40 to 60 repetitions, and 9 with more than 20 repetitions, not counting the ones just mentioned.

In a few cases he noted places where the pupils' answers and the teacher's repetitions did not agree. Such occurrences are particularly bad. The following are a few illustrations of this:

"Agrees in person and number." "Yes, in person and gender."

"A circle." "Yes, a circle is a plane figure, isn't it?"

"In the plane." "When they lie in the plane, yes."

"Line." "A straight line, yes, or the side of a parallelogram."

"France." "Yes, Spain."

"After the Revolutionary War." "Yes, during the Revolutionary War."

"Sie durfte sprechen." "Yes, Sie durften sprechen."

"Er durf sprechen." "Ja, er darf sprechen."
"Was soll das." "Ja, was soll denn das."
"Du sollte lernen." "Ja, du solltest lernen."

(*e*) Another bad habit, closely allied to this, is the "Yes" habit. The teacher in this case continually approves or disapproves of what the pupil says. The teacher calls upon the pupil to answer the question. The pupil singled out starts upon his answer leisurely. The others in the class sit back, knowing that they are not to be held responsible for the correctness of the answer. Meanwhile the pupil who is reciting is eagerly awaiting some sign as to whether or not a "yes" or a "no" is coming. He leaves his forked road open as long as possible. The teacher who continually judges the correctness of the pupil's answers is like a black cloth absorbing the rays of sunlight. The teacher might as well be a mirror reflecting to the class the answers that are proposed, holding the class responsible as to whether they are right or wrong.

A few of the teachers in Elyria have a bad attack of this habit. One teacher says "yes" or "no" every time a child answers. Another does it every time that he does not repeat an answer. The habit is much too frequent.

(*f*) Another tendency which makes for brevity in response is the habit which some of the teachers display when, after explaining a point or making a short discussion, they inquire of the class, "Is that clear?" or "Do you see the point?" Of course the only answer usually given is "Yes." Only once in all the classes visited was there a dissenting response given; only once did the pupils indicate any lack of comprehension.

Most of us who have been high-school pupils at some time or other in our lives remember with considerable wonder how often we were called upon in class for the exact portion of the lesson which we did not know well. We were accustomed to give our teachers credit for almost supernatural insight into our foibles. But this was probably not the case. We supposed that we understood the whole of the lesson, and only realized that we did not when we were called upon for the results. This only goes to show that we may think we understand something when we really do not, and the way accurately to determine our understanding is not to ask us whether we do or not, but to call for an application of the knowledge in question or to drill upon it.

This is a common educational principle which several of the Elyria High School teachers have failed to apply. One teacher in particular conducts his recitations by interspersing a series of talks with a few questions, many of which are of the "Is that clear" type. Where such a question is asked the teacher should at once know that to make the information accurate further questions are needed.

(*2*) *Thought versus memory work.*—A recitation depending mainly upon memory work is not in itself a bad thing. Surely one of the great aims of school attendance is obtaining and holding fast much knowledge of a great variety of things. Thought work itself must be dependent upon a deal of memory work, because one can not think with accuracy or to good purpose without a solid basis of fact. To that extent the two types of work combine. Some of the teachers in Elyria High School, however, confine the greater part of the work to the mere recitation of facts from textbooks or from topical outlines. There can be but two reasons for such procedure. One is that the teacher believes firmly in the doctrine of formal discipline, resting the methods of teaching upon the assumption that all work, so long as it is well done, will strengthen the mind and yield discipline. The other reason is that those teachers have no clear idea of why they are teaching or of what they wish to accomplish.

The mere fact that some of the teachers are doing more than mere memory work suggests that others could do more in that direction. The ultimate solution of this problem lies in a change of ideas on the part of the teachers themselves. A teacher can teach successfully by no method but his own. A teacher can aim in no direction but that which he himself deems worthy. The basic cause of this difference in method lies, therefore, in the theory of teachings held by the individual teacher. Improvement must be the result of changed ideas.

(*3*) *The relative responsibility of teacher and pupil.*—This divergence of method is also a result of diverging ideas on the part of the teachers. The one group apparently believes that the way to educate a pupil is to repress him. Education is a matter of holding down the individual, of repressing the wrong responses, of encouraging passive assimilation. To the other group, education is a matter of encouraging an individual to act, to think for himself, to assume responsibility. It is much like the old theological doctrine of original good and original sin. The one meant encouragement; the other, repression. Possibly the truth lies between the extremes.

(*4*) *The application of material studied.*—The varying ideas back of varying practice in this respect lie in the opposing theories in regard to the use of subject matter. One group believes that any subject matter carefully learned will be applied in time of need. The other believes that the only way to be sure of the proper application of material is to make this application while the material is being learned. No individual can decide this question for all teachers, and it requires consideration. The growth of the case method in the law schools, and the development of the interne system in the study of medicine, point to the growing strength of the latter idea.

(5) *Interest versus effort.*—Two opposing ideas of successful teaching have caused the differing practice in this particular which is found in this school. The hard, distasteful work that men are compelled to do in the world, the impossibility of sugar-coating all tasks; the feeling of triumph that comes from compelling people to do work that they do not want to do have led teachers to advocate work that takes effort. The sluggishness of classes driven by force, the stimulation of work done for the work itself or for its legitimate applications, have led other teachers to a belief in the doctrine of interest. Here again the solution lies in a change of ideas.

The remedy.—Many of these divergences are legitimate. It is entirely within the bounds of possibility that these teachers are doing right in using one method for one group and another method for another. It would be better, however, if methods were consciously adopted by the teachers in the light of the experiences and ideas of other teachers. Each teacher should know what the practices of the others are, and how his standards compare with theirs.

The biggest obstacle to progress in the Elyria High School is the isolation of the teachers. While a visiting day is technically provided by the school board, very few have availed themselves of the privilege. Many frankly say that they have not seen a class taught by another in years. Day by day they go through the routine of their tasks, hoping that they are doing the right thing, but having no standard of comparison other than their own experience. Experiments in adjoining rooms, different methods of approaching, results of other methods are unknown to them. A physician or a lawyer similarly isolated would be out of touch with his profession in a very short time.

Coupled with this is the practice of giving each teacher as many sections of the same class as possible. One teacher teaches four sections of senior English, another four sections of sophomore English, another all the history taught to juniors and seniors. One teacher teaches only beginning Latin, another only Cæsar. This practice applies throughout the school.

This isolation has prevented growth. A teacher with almost no mechanical faults teaches within 30 feet of a teacher who is as faulty on mechanical details as any in the school. Another teacher who teaches with the sole purpose of storing the memory of her pupils is separated only by a partition from a teacher who is stimulating thought in his pupils as much as any teacher the observer has seen. Within the walls of the school are all the examples needed for improvement. The remedy lies in breaking down the isolation.

Frequent visits of the principal and frequent conferences would help. The principal could direct attention to mechanical imperfec-tions which the teacher could not see. He could relate the procedure of other classes. He could act as a medium for the exchange of ideas.

Faculty meetings for the study and discussion of opposing educational theories would produce a more alert attack on educational problems. Departmental meetings and assigning different classes to teachers would help. Three teachers were teaching Ivanhoe to second-term freshmen. One had a truly excellent idea for teaching it. It would have been desirable for these teachers to discuss methods of presentation before taking up the book; but each taught in his own way and without knowledge of what the others were doing. Had four teachers each taught a section on Washington's Farewell Address instead of one, and had there been discussion before taking it up, surely a better attack could have been made.

We therefore make the following recommendations:

1. That the principal observe as many of the teachers as he can, and that he spend as much of his time in supervision as possible in order that he may note and remove mechanical errors in teaching and serve as a means of communicating successful practice from teacher to teacher.
2. That a series of faculty meetings be devoted to the findings of this section of the survey. Improvement can only come from a frank and full discussion of the points mentioned. A teacher can teach by no method but his own.
3. That the problem of memory versus thought be considered, and that works like Dewey's *How We Think*, McMurry's *How to Study*, and Strayer and Northsworthy's *How to Teach* be read.
4. That the problem of the relative responsibility of teacher and pupil be considered, possibly with the above books.
5. That the problem of applications be given consideration.
6. That the problem of interest versus effort be considered in connection with Dewey's *Interest and Effort*.
7. That teachers be given every opportunity to visit the classes of their colleagues.
8. That teachers be encouraged to pair off for mutual criticism for the improvement of their teaching.
9. That teachers be given a greater number of different sections to teach, and that where this is done departmental meetings be encouraged.

III. THE ADMINISTRATION OF THE HIGH SCHOOL.

LIBRARY.

There is a fairly good school library of some 1,200 volumes arranged along one side of the senior study hall. It contains a number of the usual reference works and collections. It is stronger in history and science than in English. It has no regular librarian, the room teacher taking charge. It needs cataloguing. Some binding should be done.

This library has two sources of revenue. About $60 a year comes from an endowment left to the library years ago. A varying sum is received annually from the sale of tickets to the commencement exercises.

No regular system appears to have been devised for the expenditure of the money. If the Elyria High School is to keep abreast of the times, a good, up-to-date library must be maintained. We recommend that instead of buying books by the haphazard method of the past, a budget system be introduced, with definite amounts appropriated to members of the various departments who need reference material.

The present arrangement with the city library, whereby pupils who hold cards may read there during the first period, is unsatisfactory. It limits the privilege to a few pupils, and for the number who can take advantage of it, only a short time is left for reading.

SUPERVISED STUDY.

One of the latest ideas in high-school work is "supervised study." There is manifest need of doing something to correct the aimless kind of activity which is found in the din and tumult of the study hall and in the family gathering in the home, where few pupils have opportunity to study uninterruptedly. One remedy that has been suggested for this is to lengthen the class period, and to devote a portion of it to recitation and a portion to study under the direct supervision of the teacher. This has been said to produce good results, and there are many advocates of this measure as there are real opponents. Most high-school teachers are neutral.

The Elyria High School has an excellent opportunity to do some constructive work in this regard. We frankly do not know whether or not the proper sort of study will result from lengthening the periods and devoting class time to it. Probably more will come from better teaching. But the arrangement of classes affords opportunity for an excellent experiment. At present, of the eight periods in the day, the first and the last are used only for assembly, laboratory periods, and the like. We recommend that in certain classes of the second and seventh periods, a teacher be allowed to start earlier or continue later than usual, so that the periods may contain 60 to 70 minutes. This would allow supervised study to be tried out in those classes, and the principal could watch the results and compare with other classes not on the same plan. In two years Elyria would know whether supervised study was wanted or not.

THE MARKING SYSTEM.

In the Elyria High School a percentage system of marking is used. By that is meant that the pupils are ranked upon the basis of their work, absolute perfection being signified by 100 per cent, absolute failure by 0 per cent. Grades are supposed to be entered nearly every day. The average of these is turned in to the section teachers once a month, to be transferred to cards. These cards are given to the pupils to take to their parents. At the close of each semester the monthly grades are averaged. If the pupil receives a grade of 75 per cent or above, he is considered to have completed the course successfully. If he receives 74 per cent or less, he fails in the course, receives no credit, and if he desires credit in that course he must repeat it.

It is a recognized fact that through the country as a whole there is little uniformity in grading. Dr. F. J. Kelly in his study of "Teacher's Marks" substantiated the conclusions of many that had gone before him, that there is the widest variation. Where courses of study are determined for the pupils, and little choice is left to the individual, wide variation is merely unfair to the pupil. He knows that for certain results one teacher will assign a certain "grade"; with another, a totally different grade. He can merely resign himself to his fate, and hope to get an "easy" teacher during the next semester. In a school like the Elyria High School, however, where there are large numbers of pupils and only three set curricula, and considerable election within each curriculum, wide variation in marking is not only unjust to the pupil, but it tends to handicap the system of election. A pupil is often prevented from going on with work that he knows he ought to take because of the abnormally high standards of those who teach it.

It was because of this phase of the problem, that the investigator addressed himself to a study of the marking system and the variations in marking among the various teachers.

Lists of the grades given for the semester's work (fall of 1916) were procured, arranged so that it was relatively easy to determine the teacher's name, the grade and sex of pupils, and subject in which the mark was given. These grades were the final grades in the courses taken, determining the promotion or failure of the student. The grades were then tabulated according to several classifications. It was obviously a statistical task of too great extent to transcribe and tabulate in several different ways each numerical grade. The investigator arbitrarily divided the grades into five groups, namely, 100–95, 94–89, 88–83, 82–75, and 74–0. All the failures were placed in the last group. These grades were then transferred on cards, of which the following is an illustration.

Teacher (Miss Terry), History III. 2.30.						
	100-95	94-89	88-83	82-75	74-0	Total.
Boys	I	II	IIII	IIII	II	13
Girls	I	IIII	III	II	II	12
Total	2	6	7	6	4	25

The data, after being transferred to the cards, were assembled in various ways, in each case the total number of grades of a particular group being totaled before the percentages were figured. Certain conclusions from this study follow:

1. The general distribution of grades for the school as a whole is as follows:

100-95	94-89	88-83	82-75	74-0
6 per cent.	17 per cent.	28 per cent.	36 per cent.	13 per cent.

2. The teachers in Elyria High School do not vary widely in their marking either of boys and girls, or of freshmen, sophomores, juniors, or seniors; nor is there any special difference in the way men and women teachers mark. In other words, the general distribution of marks for these groups is about like that for the school as a whole.

3. It is much easier to receive a high mark in some departments than in others.

Marks in the Elyria High School.

Pupils.	100-95	94-89	88-83	82-75	74-0
	Per cent.	*Per cent.*	*Per cent.*	*Per cent.*	*Per cent.*
School as a whole	6	17	28	36	13
Boys	4	16	27	37	16
Girls	7	17	29	35	12
Seniors	10	16	25	39	10
Juniors	9	16	28	33	14
Sophomores	4	19	27	33	15
Freshmen	5	18	29	35	13
Men teachers	6	20	29	31	14
Women teachers	7	16	28	36	13

Students receiving marks of 95 to 100 per cent.

In the department of—	Per cent.	In the department of—	Per cent.
German	20	Home economics	7
Agriculture	10	Commerce	5
History	9	English	4
Mathematics	9	Science	4
Latin	7	Industrial arts	1

4. It is much more difficult to pass in some departments than in others.

Students failing in the different departments.

In the department of—	Per cent.
Mathematics	21
Latin	18
History	18
Science	17
Commerce	13

In the department of—	Per cent.
English	13
Mechanic arts	9
German	8
Agriculture	5
Home economics	3

5. One mark does not mean the same thing in one department that it means in another. The following data show that:

Per cent of students receiving certain marks.

Departments.	100–95	94–89	88–83	82–75	74–0
	Per cent.	*Per cent.*	*Per cent.*	*Per cent.*	*Per cent.*
Home economics	7	18	36	36	3
Commerce	5	20	12	50	13
German	20	15	23	34	8
Mechanic arts	1	24	33	83	9
Latin	7	13	35	29	18
English	4	16	28	37	13
History	9	20	19	33	18
Agriculture	10	22	47	16	5
Science	4	12	27	40	17
Mathematics	9	19	23	27	21

6. A mark does not mean the same thing with one teacher that it means with another. The following table shows that. Here each teacher in the Elyria High School is designated by a letter. Coupled with this is the percentage of his classes which he has marked within the group noted:

Markings of the different teachers.

100–95	94–89	88–83	82–75	74–0
Per ct.	*Per ct.*	*Per ct.*	*Per ct.*	*Per ct.*
P......20	D......28	R......47	J......53	Q.....36
H......15	E......23	I......47	B......51	L.....29
K......15	A......22	F......39	W.....50	V.....24
T......15	R......22	U......37	Q......43	X.....23
D......14	C......21	N......37	H......41	N.....18
O......12	F......20	A......37	G......40	M.....17
M......10	I......20	C......35	O......37	J.....17
R......10	N......20	G......35	V......37	T.....15
X......8	W.....20	E......34	U......36	S.....14
B......7	K......19	M......31	F......36	W....13
L......7	O......19	K......30	P......34	B.....12
G......6	T......19	D......28	E......34	O.....12
W......5	H......17	H......24	X......33	U.....11
A......4	M......17	B......23	C......32	K.....10
C......4	S......17	P......23	A......31	C......8
S......4	V......16	T......23	L......31	P......8
E......3	P......15	X......23	I......30	E......6
J......2	G......14	V......22	T......28	A......6
U......2	U......14	L......21	D......28	G......5
V......1	X......13	O......20	K......26	R......5
Q......1	L......12	J......19	M......25	F......5
I......1	Q......11	S......18	N......25	H......3
N......0	J......9	W.....12	S......23	I......2
F......0	B......7	Q......11	R......16	D......2

Teachers P, H, K, T, D, and O are clearly giving more marks from 95 per cent to 100 per cent than the best judgment of all the teachers would warrant. In the same way teachers Q, L, V, X, N, and M are clearly "failing" many more of their pupils, in a similar way, than the judgment of the entire group would indicate. When one teacher "fails" 36 per cent of all the pupils with whom he comes in contact, while another fails but 2 per cent, something is wrong. One teacher is either exceedingly good and the other exceedingly bad, or one has standards much higher than others, and one has standards much lower than others. Pupils will gravitate from the classes of those high up in the last column to those low down, while the movement will be in the opposite direction in the first column. Surely it would be much better for the teachers to have standards more nearly alike.

7. Some teachers in Elyria High School do not mark boys and girls in the same way. Some favor boys; some, girls; some fail more boys; some, more girls. The point is not as important as the other, but its investigation brings out several cases in which mention of it to the teacher may do some good. Teachers B, K, L, M. N, V, and X fail a larger percentage of boys than girls, while teachers J, O, Q, S, and T fail a larger percentage of girls than boys. It seems hardly probable that such wide variations should exist. The other teachers are not making wide differences in their judgments of boys and girls.

8. The school at present has a well-defined standard of marking. There are not wide variations from this in large groups. Individuals and departments, however, do vary widely. It would be a good thing for the principal to talk with the teachers who vary most widely from the standards set down by the combined judgment of the rest of the school, and try to ascertain the causes for either the poor teaching and high standards or good teaching and low standards. There should not be such wide variation from teacher to teacher.

9. Experience in many studies of marking, and in variations in all other phases of human abilities, shows that people vary about as the "normal curve of distribution." Where a five-step scale is used—that is, A, B, C, D, and E—it has been found that under normal circumstances about 3 per cent fall into the A group, about 22 per cent in the B group, about 50 per cent in the C group, about 22 per cent in the D group, and about 3 per cent in the E group. It seems that the children in Elyria High School are marked both too high and too low. It hardly seems probable that as many as 20 per cent of a class would be able to do perfect work; and we fail to see how a teacher could rest content with from 20 per cent to 40 per cent of the children failing in the work, particularly when a conference hour is provided at the close of the day.

COST OF INSTRUCTION.

The cost of instruction in the Elyria High School is well balanced in the various departments. Basing the cost of instruction on the enrollment in the classes on September 20 (the end of the third week) as the number of pupils for whom places are provided, and estimating the costs on the basis of 1,000 sixty-minute student hours, we have the following costs for the several departments. (For example, if a teacher has 40 children in a class for 45 minutes, she has taught 30 student hours.)

Cost per 1,000 student hours of the various departments in Elyria High School.

Commerce	$76.28	Modern languages	$66.30	History	$57.88
Latin	77.36	Home economics	61.84	Natural science	54.04
Agriculture	67.80	Industrial arts	62.60	English	53.65
Mathematics	66.84			Drawing	48.75
				Music	38.34

It is rather unusual to find in a high school such an even balance between the various types of work. The management is highly to be commended on its efficiency.

At the same time the costs in the Elyria High School are also well balanced so far as being within the "zone of safety," as Prof. Bobbitt calls it. The costs of various subjects compared with the data tabulated by Prof. Bobbitt are shown in the following tables:

Costs per 1,000 student hours of various subjects in Elyria High School compared with other cities.

AGRICULTURE.	
De Kalb, Ill	$118
Bonner Springs, Kans	106
Elyria, Ohio	*68*
Maple Lake, Minn	58
Brazil, Ind	58
Russell, Kans	52
Mount Carroll, Ill	44
Noblesville, Ind	40
Boonville, Mo	34
Greensburg, Ind	35
Washington, Mo	20

HISTORY.	
Elgin, Ill	127
Maple Lake, Minn	109
De Kalb, Ill	103
Mishawaka, Ind	91
San Antonio, Tex	83
Greensburg, Ind	82
Waukegan, Ill	79
Harvey, Ill	76
Mount Carroll, Ill	$73
East Chicago, Ind	71
East Aurora, Ill	63
South Bend, Ind	62
Granite City, Ill	59
Leavenworth, Kans	58
Elyria, Ohio	*58*
Noblesville, Ind	54
Boonville, Mo	53
Bonner Springs, Kans	52
Russell, Kans	48
Brazil, Ind	46
Morgan Park, Ill	45
Washington, Mo	41
Norfolk, Nebr	33
Junction City, Kans	26

COMMERCE.	
Elgin, Ill	113
De Kalb, Ill	112
San Antonio, Tex	103

Costs per 1,000 student hours of various subjects in Elyria High School compared with other cities—Continued.

COMMERCE—continued.

Washington, Mo	$100
Mishawaka, Ind	83
Boonville, Ind	81
Elyria, Ohio	76
Waukegan, Ill	73
Noblesville, Ind	72
East Chicago, Ind	72
Harvey, Kans	69
Leavenworth, Kans	60
Junction City, Kans	54
Granite City, Ill	54
Bonner Springs, Kans	52
Aurora, Ill	49
Rockford, Ill	49
Brazil, Ind	47
Nashville, Tenn	46
South Bend, Ind	43
Greensburg, Ind	23

HOME ECONOMICS.

De Kalb, Ill	174
San Antonio, Tex	88
Waukegan, Ill	83
Greensburg, Ind	81
Nashville, Tenn	79
Harvey, Ill	77
South Bend, Ind	72
Noblesville, Ind	62
Elyria, Ohio	62
Mishawaka, Ind	61
Elgin, Ill	60
Rockford, Ill	48
Junction City, Kans	46
Bonner Springs, Kans	45
Maple Lake, Minn	41
East Aurora, Ill	39
East Chicago, Ind	36
Russell, Kans	36
Leavenworth, Kans	35

LATIN.

Maple Lake, Ill	244
University High, Chicago, Ill	174
Russell, Kans	170
Elgin, Ill	138
Mishawaka, Ind	126
San Antonio, Tex	103
Harvey, Ill	92
South Bend, Ind	86
Junction City, Kans	$79
Elyria, Ohio	77
Leavenworth, Kans	75
De Kalb, Ill	74
Washington, Mo	68
East Aurora, Ill	64
Mount Carroll, Ill	62
Waukegan, Ill	61
Noblesville, Ind	61
Brazil, Ind	54
Morgan Park, Ill	53
Granite City, Ill	52
Rockford, Ill	49
Norfolk, Nebr	48
Boonville, Mo	48
Greensburg, Ind	46

MATHEMATICS.

University High, Chicago, Ill	169
Mishawaka, Ind	112
Elgin, Ill	100
Maple Lake, Minn	100
Granite City, Ill	88
East Chicago, Ind	82
De Kalb, Ill	74
San Antonio, Tex	69
Harvey, Ill	69
Elyria, Ohio	67
Waukegan, Ill	63
South Bend, Ind	62
East Aurora, Ill	61
Rockford, Ill	59
Boonville, Ind	58
Brazil, Ind	56
Leavenworth, Kans	56
Greensburg, Ind	54
Morgan Park, Ill	53
Noblesville, Ind	52
Norfolk, Nebr	42
Washington, Mo	41
Bonner Springs, Kans	38
Russell, Kans	34
Junction City, Kans	33
Mount Carroll, Ill	30

ENGLISH.

De Kalb, Ill	105
Mishawaka, Ind	95
East Chicago, Ind	85

Costs per 1,000 student hours of various subjects in Elyria High School compared with other cities—Continued.

ENGLISH—continued.

Elgin, Ill	$82
Harvey, Ill	71
Waukegan, Ill	69
San Antonio, Tex	68
South Bend, Ind	66
East Aurora, Ill	58
Boonville, Mo	54
Elyria, Ohio	*54*
Leavenworth, Kans	52
Rockford, Ill	51
Greensburg, Ind	51
Noblesville, Ind	50
Brazil, Ind	49
Maple Lake, Minn	47
Morgan Park, Ill	44
Junction City, Kans	43
Mount Carroll, Ill	40
Granite City, Ill	39
Bonner Springs, Kans	38

MODERN LANGUAGES.

San Antonio, Tex	114
Elgin, Ill	109
Mishawaka, Ind	98
De Kalb, Ill	95
East Chicago, Ind	82
Waukegan, Ill	81
Harvey, Ill	80
East Aurora, Ill	78
Noblesville, Ind	68
Elyria, Ohio	*66*
Greensburg, Ind	65
South Bend, Ind	63
Rockford, Ill	62
Leavenworth, Kans	61
Washington, Mo	61
Brazil, Ind	54
Junction City, Kans	53
Boonville, Mo	45
Bonner Springs, Kans	43
Norfolk, Nebr	43
Russell, Kans	42
Maple Lake, Minn	37
Granite City, Ill	33

NATURAL SCIENCE.

De Kalb, Ill	140
University High, Chicago, Ill	130
Waukegan, Ill	$125
East Chicago, Ind	125
Harvey, Ill	101
East Aurora, Ill	88
Elgin, Ill	84
Morgan Park, Ill	71
San Antonio, Tex	68
Bonner Springs, Kans	65
Maple Lake, Minn	64
South Bend, Ind	62
Mishawaka, Ind	60
Mount Carroll, Ill	60
Boonville, Mo	58
Granite City, Ind	56
Russell, Kans	56
Elyria, Ohio	*54*
Norfolk, Nebr	54
Leavenworth, Kans	54
Brazil, Ind	52
Rockford, Ill	50
Noblesville, Ind	50
Greensburg, Ind	49
Junction City, Kans	34
Washington, Mo	30
Russell, Kans	36
Washington, Mo	34
Norfolk, Nebr	28

INDUSTRIAL ARTS.

Junction City, Kans	148
Elgin, Ill	139
Aurora, Ill	133
De Kalb, Ill	128
Waukegan, Ill	122
South Bend, Ind	111
Boonville, Mo	108
San Antonio, Tex	103
Mishawaka, Ind	82
Russell, Kans	68
Noblesville, Ind	67
Rockford, Ill	64
Elyria, Ohio	*63*
Harvey, Ill	56
Leavenworth, Kans	54
Norfolk, Nebr	48
Greensburg, Ind	35
East Chicago, Ind	21

A number of factors might combine to determine the costs, the salaries of the teachers, the number of periods taught per day, and the size of the sections. Are these well balanced?

The teachers do not teach too many hours a week. Prof. Bobbitt gives a table showing the median length of the teaching week in the various subjects in the schools he studied, together with the quartile range. Giving this and comparing the average length of teaching week (the median is inaccurate with so few cases) in Elyria High School, it is clear that the teachers do not teach too many periods as compared with other schools.[1]

Length of teaching week per teacher and subject, Elyria and others.

Subjects.	Zone of safety.	Med. 60 minute hours per teacher per week in other cities.	In Elyria.
Agriculture	28-23	25.4	18.58
Household occupations	28-23	24.1	22.50
Commerce	27-23	24.1	30.00
English	26-20	23.3	18.58
Mathematics	26-22	23.3	18.58
Latin	26-21	23.2	18.58
Modern languages	26-20	23.2	18.58
Shopwork (industrial arts)	26-21	23.1	30.00
History	26-20	23.0	18.58
Science	25-22	22.5	25.50

In all but commerce, shopwork, and science the teachers in Elyria High School are well below the median and below the zone of safety. This would increase costs, not lower them.

Nor are the sections especially large. The median section for the school is 21 pupils. The entire distribution of sections is given in the following table:

Size of sections in Elyria High School.

Subjects.	Students.								
	Median numbers.	1-4	5-9	10-14	15-19	20-24	25-29	30-34	40
Agriculture	24					4	1		
Commercial work	14			4	1		1	1	
Drawing	17			1	2				
English	24				1	8	9	2	
History	26					6	6	3	
Home economics	15	2	1	5	11				
Latin	20			1	3	7	1		
Mathematics	24			1	2	9	4	3	
Modern languages	26			1		2	3	2	
Music	41.5								4
Science	21				3	6			
Industrial arts	16			2	4	3			
Total	21	2	1	15	27	45	25	11	4

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[1] The School Review, Oct., 1915.

Size of sections in Elyria High School compared with upper and lower quartiles of a number of other cities (Babbitt).

Subjects.	Elyria.	Other cities.		
	Median.	Upper quartile.	Median.	Lower quartile.
Music	41.5	88	58	42
English	24	24	22	20
Mathematics	24	24	21	18
History	26	23	21	17
Science	21	22	20	16
Agriculture	24	25	19	18
Commerce	14	23	29	15
Drawing	17	24	18	14
Modern languages	26	20	17	15
Latin	20	19	17	14
Household occupations	15	23	17	13
Shopwork	16	18	14	12

Elyria is clearly at about the central tendency of the cities studied by Babbitt. The expenses of instruction are well distributed from department to department. It is at about the median.

The salary of the principal.—The latest available compilation of statistics of salaries of high-school principals is for the year 1913–14. At that time the principal of the Elyria High School received $1,600, which was $100 less than the median and $73 less than the average paid to high-school principals in the cities of the country whose population was between 10,000 and 25,000.

The Elyria principal now receives $1,700, exactly the median salary in 1913–14. Since that time, however, salaries have increased throughout the country, and undoubtedly the median salary is still greater than that of the Elyria school. A reasonable increase should be granted to him. The following table shows the salaries of 223 high-school principals:

Salaries of high-school principals in cities of 10,000 to 25,000 population in 1913–14.

	Principals receiving.		Principals receiving.		Principals receiving.
$3, 500	1	$2, 300	4	$1, 500	31
3, 000	1	2, 200	13	1, 400	19
2, 900	1	2, 100	6	1, 800	16
2, 800	2	2, 000	20	1, 200	10
2, 700	3	1, 900	9	1, 100	6
2, 600	2	1, 800	30	900	2
2, 500	7	1, 700	16		
2, 400	6	1, 600	20		

Median, $1,700; average, $1,673. At that time Elyria paid $1,600.

TEACHERS.

The salaries of the teachers in the high school at Elyria are surprisingly low. The median salary is $1,000, or $100 more than it was in 1912–13. The distribution of salaries of 23 teachers employed in the fall of 1916–17 was as follows:

Salaries of teachers, 1916–17.

	Teachers.		Teachers.
$1,350	4	$1,000	5
1,250	2	950	1
1,200	1	900	1
1,150	2	850	2
1,100	1	800	2
1,050	1	750	1

Comparing the median salary in Elyria with the median salary of certain other cities of about the same size (reducing the median to conform to similarity of dates) we have the following:

Median salaries of high-schoool teachers in certain cities.

Alameda, Cal	$1,440	Kearney, N. J	$1,000
Plainfield, N. J	1,300	Kenosha, Wis	1,000
Norwood, Ohio	1,300	Morristown, N. J	1,000
Fresno, Cal	1,300	Ann Arbor, Mich	1,000
Boise, Idaho	1,300	Moline, Ill	950
West Chester, Pa	1,200	Adrian, Mich	950
Wilkinsburg, Pa	1,200	Muncie, Ind	935
Hackensack, N. J	1,150	Leavenworth, Kans	900
Gary, Ind	1,100	East Chicago, Ind	900
Trinidad, Colo	1,100	Elyria, Ohio	900
Port Chester, N. Y	1,100	Fargo, N. Dak	900
Sioux Falls, N. Dak	1,100	Sandusky, Ohio	875
Everett, Wash	1,080	Burlington, Iowa	855
Belleville, Ill	1,000	Owensboro, Ky	855
Dunkirk, N. J	1,000		

Under ordinary circumstances, with such a low price paid for teaching, one would naturally expect to find marked deficiencies in other lines, such as very young teachers, teachers without experience, poorly trained teachers, etc. But this is not the case.

1. The teachers of Elyria High School are exceptionally well trained. The median teacher has had a four-year college course; three have done graduate work; while only seven have had less than a complete college course.

Years of training beyond elementary school, Elyria high-school teachers.

	Teachers.		Teachers.
9 years	1	7 years	2
8¾ years	1	6½ years	1
8⅔ years	1	5⅓ years	1
8 years	13	5 years	3

2. The teachers of Elyria High School have had successful experience in high-school work. The teaching done and the amount of each kind is given in the following table, in months:

Experience of Elyria High School teachers.

No.	Total teaching experience.	In present place.	In high school.		In elementary school.	
			City.	Rural.	City.	Rural.
	Months.	*Months.*	*Months.*	*Months.*	*Months.*	*Months.*
1	360	126	153		207	
2	306	198	198	99		9
3	232	212	212			20
4	171	36	36	108		27
5	140	140	140			
6	132	45	45	27		60
7	114	105	105		9	
8	111	70	70	32		9
9	100	36	100			
10	88	77	77	9		2
11	87	36	36			51
12	80	27	80			
13	78	0	0		20	58
14	72	54	54			18
15	63	45	63			
16	54	54	54			
17	54	18	36	18		
18	43	43	43			
19	18	18	18			
20	18	18	18			
21	18	9	9			
22	18	0	0		9	9

The median teacher of the Elyria High School has had a total experience of 80 months, 43 months of which have been spent in the present place. All but 3 have had experience in high-school work previous to the present year, and only 1 has had less than two years' experience previous to the present year.

3. The teachers of Elyria High School are a mature group of teachers. Their ages are as follows:

Ages of teachers in Elyria High School.

	Teachers.		Teachers.
Under 25	2	45–49	1
25–29	6	50–54	1
30–34	7	55–59	1
35–39	3	60–64	1
40–44	1		

4. The teachers of Elyria High School have had considerable work in education. The amount of work which each had done in education and psychology, computed to a common standard, the semester-hour basis, is shown in the following:

Professional study by teachers.

Semester hours in education:	Teachers.
0	7
5–10	3
10–15	2
15–20	4
20–25	3
25 and over	3

Considering that the teachers of the Elyria High School are well educated, have had successful experience, are mature, and have had training in psychology and education, it is surprising that they are not better paid. The explanation lies in the fact that the great majority of them previously lived in Elyria or the vicinity, and that the opportunity to teach at home among familiar surroundings and friends outweighs the higher salaries that would be paid elsewhere. Only a few of the teachers have any appreciable income outside of school work, but the fact that a good many live at home with their parents in effect increases their salaries a little. Eleven of the teachers are graduates of the Elyria High School itself, seven from high schools in northern Ohio, and only five from other places. Nearly every teacher in the school secured his place through the personal knowledge of the former superintendent, showing that the school was not bidding for teachers in the open market.

The teachers take an active part in the work of the community, only six not working either in the clubs, Sunday schools, Young

Men's Christian Association, or Young Women's Christian Association.

One noticeable feature of the attitude of the teachers is their lack of attendance upon summer schools. This is not so necessary as it might be if they were not so well trained, but the fact remains that 15 of the teachers have not been to a summer school since graduation from college. The salaries paid, of course, do not warrant much expense for study during vacations.

1. We recommend that the salaries of the teachers of Elyria High School be increased to meet the demands on the outside. Ten teachers have been drawn away from Elyria by Cleveland and other cities during the past 10 years.

2. We also recommend that efforts of teachers to increase their worth to the schools of Elyria by study at summer schools and in other ways be given proper recognition.

POSSIBLE ECONOMIES.

In addition to the plans previously mentioned, there are at least three ways in which the Elyria High School may economize the time of the pupils who enter its doors. It is not peculiar to Elyria that boys and girls are entering professional life at a later age than boys and girls in other countries. Twenty-five per cent of the present senior class were 19 or older last June. The following "age-grade" table shows the maturity of the student body.

Ages and grades of pupils in Elyria High School.

Grades.	Ages.								
	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21
First year	7	49	59	37	9	2			
Second year		10	48	79	34	7	2	1	
Third year			11	39	43	30	8		
Fourth year				7	29	24	17	2	2

Anything which will enable the boys and girls to finish school at an earlier age, or to complete more of the course before they are forced to stop school, would be a good thing. Three measures may be more or less completely adopted to further this purpose: (1) The school might continue for a longer time each year; (2) the pupils in certain cases might be allowed to carry more work; and (3) a closer relationship might be made with the elementary school whereby the break between the two institutions would be lessened, so that the boys and girls might get an earlier start in the high school.

(*1*) *Increasing the time given to school work.*—The Elyria High School has a term of 38 weeks, an unusually long term. Many other schools in the North Central Association run but 35 or 36 weeks, and still receive the same credit for a year's work. If Elyria High School were to institute a summer term of nine weeks, and add to that two or three weeks of the winter term, a summer course completing from one-fourth to one-half of a year's work might be offered. If a student were to take one-third of a year's work every summer, the course could be completed in three years, a saving of an entire year. If compulsory military training is adopted by this country some such plan as this will be needed to make up the time to be lost in that way. This, of course, will increase the total expense for salaries, but it will be making a better use of the school plant. In time some such plan as this should be adopted.

(*2*) *Allowing certain pupils to carry more work.*—Individuals differ widely. On the race track we expect certain boys to run much faster than others, in the declamation contest we are not surprised at inequalities in ability, but in high school we usually insist that every boy and every girl carry four subjects, no matter whether he or she is bright or dull. It is well known to anyone who has made any psychological study of variations in ability that it is quite as easy for certain children to carry five subjects as it is for certain others to carry three. There is no good reason why the bright, healthy children should not be permitted to carry five subjects and graduate in three years.

At present in the Elyria High School relatively few are carrying more or less than the normal amount. The following table gives the conditions on February 15, 1917:

Number of pupils in Elyria High School carrying 2, 3, 4, and 5 courses.

	Two courses.	Three courses.	Four courses.	Five courses.
Freshmen		[1] 4	161	2
Sophomores		13	170	13
Juniors		[2] 15	106	11
Seniors	[3] 2	[4] 5	72	6

[1] From delinquent school.
[2] Six taking music outside.
[3] Doing office work outside; need but two units to graduate.
[4] Taking music outside.

Most of the pupils carrying less than four courses are carrying music in addition. Those from the delinquent school are carrying but three. In the same fashion, why should not the exceptionally able, coming from the elementary school, be allowed to elect an extra subject, or rather be encouraged to elect it. It would make for earlier graduation. It would save a year for many.

(*3*) *A better organization of the program of studies.*—At present the elementary schools and the high school at Elyria are almost completely separate. In the grade schools the children sit in one room;

in the high school they move about; in the grade schools they have but one teacher except in manual training and mathematics; in the high school they have many. In the elementary school the same subjects are studied throughout most of the course; in the high school new ones are taken up with relative frequency. One of the large elementary schools is on the same plat of ground as the high school, yet the two are in no way connected. Few high-school teachers have seen an elementary-school class taught since they left the eighth grade. Few elementary-school teachers have seen a high-school class taught since they themselves were in the high school. Not a single reference was made in any first-year high-school class that was visited to any elementary school work that might have gone before. The high-school teachers were quite as unfamiliar with any of the details of the eighth grade work as the eighth grade teachers were of the high-school work. One teacher appointed in February had a little work in both schools; a few of the manual training classes are held in the high school. These are the only connections.

No argument is needed to prove the inefficiency of this organization, the result of accidental combinations of differing types of schools in our educational system. There is no psychological, sociological, or practical reason why "elementary-school work" should continue for eight years and then suddenly give way to "high-school work." There is no valid reason for a break between the two. Various attempts are being made all over the United States to remedy this evil, which, of course, is not peculiar to Elyria. Many elementary schools have introduced departmental work in the upper grades, allowing for greater specialization of the teaching force, with the consequent increase in efficiency, striving to make the elementary school more like the high school. Other cities have tried to make the first year of the high school more like the elementary school, giving one or two teachers entire charge of a section. Some cities promote the eighth-grade teacher with the class, making her a section teacher of the new first-year high-school class, and having her continue the Latin and algebra which she started the year before. In this way all the eighth and ninth grade teachers teach one grade or the other every two years.

Without doubt the most successful solution of the difficulty has been in the introduction of the junior high school. This movement has been viewed as an unwarranted extension of the high school downward. In reality it is fully as much an extension of the elementary school upward. The elementary school and the high school were all right so long as one was for the training of followers and the other for the training of leaders. But the spirit of democracy has grown, and the high school has changed from a preparatory school to a real college of the people, beyond which not more than 4 per cent of the people go. More than 50 per cent of those who enter it leave before the close of the second year. A change, therefore, is urgently needed which will wipe out the line of demarcation between the elementary and the high school. For the commercial curriculum does not really start any commercial work until the second high-school year. Yet, as Van Denburg in his study of the New York high schools has showed, pupils leave in great numbers to enter business before the close of the first high-school year. For the college preparatory group, the four years of training are not sufficient; nor do we see the like of it in any other great country. German boys start Latin in the class corresponding to our fourth grade, and a similar condition prevails in France.

In view of the foregoing facts it is recommended that Elyria adopt the six-three-three plan of organization for its schools. In this plan the first six grades become the elementary school; the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades become the junior high school; and the tenth, eleventh, and twelfth grades the senior high school.

It has been said that it is the function of the first five or six years of school to impart the tools and basal concepts of education by means of interesting subject matter, and that it is the function of the upper grades and the high school to impart interesting subject matter by means of the tools and basal concepts learned in the earlier grades. This shift in emphasis forms the logical transition from the elementary school to the junior high school.

Impress upon the teacher the fact that pupils are leaving school. One great advantage of the junior high-school idea is that there is a "graduation" at the close of the ninth grade, and the teachers do not count on three years' additional work for every child. Yet in the usual high school, the program of studies and the ideas of the teachers are often based upon the thought that all children are going to graduate.

One additional consideration. A survey need not confine itself to suggestions which are immediately practical. The one which follows is one which the administrators of the high school should weigh with exceeding care, considering its possible advantages and disadvantages. The suggestion is that at least a part of the Elyria High School be organized on a part-time plan like that of Fitchburg, Mass., and the University of Cincinnati. A number of considerations lead to this suggestion. A great number of the pupils are leaving school before graduation. Much of the so-called vocational work, particularly agriculture, is without point unless it is connected with the actual operation of such work out in the world. The great majority of the boys and many of the girls are engaged in gainful occupations during the summer and on Saturdays and before and after school. If the "alternation plan" were adopted of operating the school in groups, one group to be at work in the industry or on the farm or in the home, and another group to be in school, the groups exchanging places every week or every two weeks, practical experience in the work would be had, the school work would have more point, and many pupils otherwise unable to remain in school would be enabled to do so.

The children at Elyria are already engaged in gainful occupations. The pupils were asked the following questions: How much did you make at work last summer? What was the work? How much do you make out of school hours and on Saturdays? What is the work? The results are given in the following tables:

Money earned by high-school boys.

Nonresident pupils who earned the amounts stated in column 3.	Resident pupils who earned the amounts stated in column 3.	Amounts earned during summer vacation, 1916.	Nonresident pupils who earned the amounts stated in column 6.	Resident pupils who earned the amounts stated in column 6.	Earnings per week during school term.
1	2	3	4	5	6
5	14	0	40	84	0
5	9	$0-$10	1	3	$0.01-$0.50
9	24	11- 20	7	10	.51- 1.00
12	16	21- 30	5	16	1.01- 1.50
6	6	31- 40	10	25	1.51- 2.00
8	5	41- 50	1	10	2.01- 2.50
6	11	51- 60	5	15	2.51- 3.00
5	6	61- 70	1	4	3.01- 3.50
6	15	71- 80	1	9	3.51- 4.00
2	8	81- 90	1	3	4.01- 4.50
8	25	91-100	1	11	4.51- 5.00
....	2	101-110	1	1	5.01- 5.50
....	7	111-120	1	4	5.51- 6.00
....	7	121-130	....	1	6.01- 6.50
....	7	131-140	....	....	....
....	9	141-150	....	1	7.01- 7.50
....	2	151-160	....	2	10.00
....	2	161-170	....	1	13.00
....	2	171-180	....	....	....
....	2	181-190	2	....	oard.
....	7	191-200	2	....	ndefinite.

Profitable occupations of high-school boys.

Occupation in which money was earned.	Nonresident pupils who earned money—		Resident pupils who earned money—	
	During summer vacation, 1916.	During school term.	During summer vacation, 1916.	During school term.
Clerking in store	3	7	49	49
Office work	0	0	6	3
Farm and garden	58	29	15	1
Factory	5	1	63	9
Odd jobs	0	3	20	7
Chauffeur and garage	1	0	8	3
Driving truck	3	0	5	0
Plumbing	0	0	0	2
Shopwork	1	1	4	0
Carpentry	1	0	0	0
Music	1	1	0	1
Theatrical work	0	0	1	0
Caddying	1	0	2	1
Setting ten pins	0	1	0	2
Delivering	1	0	0	2
Minor sales	2	2	13	26
Waiting and barbering	0	0	1	3
Printing	0	0	3	2
Electric work	0	0	1	1
Library	0	0	0	1
Drafting	0	0	0	1

Money earned by high-school girls.

Nonresident pupils who earned the amounts stated in column 3.	Resident pupils who earned the amounts stated in column 3.	Amounts earned during summer vacation, 1916.	Nonresident pupils who earned the amounts stated in column 6.	Resident pupils who earned the amounts stated in column 6.	Earnings per week during school term.
1	2	3	4	5	6
37	127	0	76	161	0
29	44	$1-$10	7	13	$0.01-$0.50
12	17	11- 20	2	18	.51- 1.00
11	11	21- 30	1	1	1.01- 1.50
1	2	31- 40	2	2	1.51- 2.00
1	2	41- 50	0	5	2.01- 2.50
0	2	51- 60	2	1	2.51- 3.00
1	0	61- 70	1	1	3.01- 3.50
1	2	71- 80	0	1	3.51- 4.00
5	9	Indefinite.	0	0	4.01- 4.50
0	1	Premiums.	1	1	4.51- 5.00
1	0	Board.	0	12	Indefinite.
....	....	....	1	0	Board.

Profitable occupations of high-school girls.

Occupations in which money was earned.	Nonresident pupils who earned money—		Resident pupils who earned money—	
	During summer vacation, 1916.	During school term.	During summer vacation, 1916.	During school term.
Housework	25	13	38	25
Clerking	3	2	15	16
Office work	1	2	10	2
Nursing	0	0	9	1
Farm and garden	30	0	5	0
Factory work	1	0	3	0
Baking and candy making	0	0	1	2
Selling small articles	1	0	4	3
Theatrical work	0	0	2	2
Errands	0	0	1	0
Giving lessons (music or dancing)	0	0	1	3
Garage	1	0	0	1
Literary work	0	0	1	0

It is clear that a large number of lines of work are already represented in this high school. The boys particularly are already at work, and many of them are engaged in work which renders considerable return for the effort. It is certainly true that the rapidly growing industries of Elyria and the vicinity are drawing boys away from school. A combination plan whereby boys could be allowed to alternate between work and school would tend to keep boys in school, would help them to earn their way, and at the same time would tend to make the school work of a practical nature that no other plan would secure.

This plan has been successful in other cities. It is doubtful if the work in industrial arts or agriculture will ever amount to what it should until some plan something like this is adopted.

SUGGESTIONS.

(1) That a curriculum better adapted to the needs of prospective teachers be devised upon consultation with the normal school authorities.

(2) That a curriculum in arts and crafts be devised.

(3) That every effort be made to put more vital work in the earlier years, particularly in the commercial and agricultural departments.

(4) That the three science laboratories be repaired and made more suitable for their work.

(5) That more work in hygiene and health be given.

(6) That science work, especially physics and chemistry be better adapted to the needs of farmers, industrial workers, and housewives.

(7) That four years of one modern language be offered.

(8) That every Latin class be also a class in English.

(9) That the pupils who are not doing well be encouraged to drop Latin and algebra early in the course.

(10) That instruction in "oral English composition" be extended in a measure to all the exercises of the school; that frequent comparisons be made between the classics, and greater emphasis be laid upon the reasons for reading particular books; that more interesting stories be selected for beginners; that better application be made of grammar and rhetoric.

(11) That algebra be postponed to the second year.

(12) That the hard and fast system of assigning lessons be abolished.

(13) That experiments in supervised study be tried.

(14) That some part-time classes be introduced.

Chapter VI

INSTRUCTION IN PRIMARY GRADES.

READING.

Failures in reading.—Twenty-one per cent of the children in the first grade in the Elyria schools failed in reading at the mid-year promotions in 1917. Ten per cent failed in the second grade, 5 per cent in the third grade, and only 1 per cent in the fourth grade. Comparison of this record with that of Cleveland for June, 1914, shows that the first-grade failure in Cleveland was 15 per cent as against 21 per cent in Elyria; the second grade 10 per cent in both cities; and the third grade 6 per cent as compared with 5 for Elyria; and in the fourth grade 4½ per cent for Cleveland, and 1 per cent for Elyria. Cleveland has a lower rate of failure in first grade by 6 per cent than Elyria, but in the next three grades—second, third, and fourth—the Cleveland failures are 6 per cent greater than in Elyria. Cleveland's curve of failure in reading is lower than Elyria's in the first grade, but still maintains a high per cent, while it follows the same general direction through all the grades. Elyria has a decided gain on Cleveland in the middle grades, and it was demonstrated repeatedly in the reading classes observed in Elyria that the children in the middle grades read with fluency and accuracy.

A full discussion of the probable causes which lead to the high percentage of failures in the first grade and the reasons for the wide variation in proficiency in reading between the first and the middle grades will be given in the following pages.

First grade.—Many influences work together to deter the progress of first-grade children. For the first months they must adjust themselves to new conditions and adapt themselves to a new environment. The language of the schoolroom is very different, even for American-born children, from that of the home. The arbitrary symbol in reading, as the sign of the spoken word, requires in itself a remarkable adjustment. The child has known language through the ear and voice, and now it becomes a thing of sight. He *sees* language and is expected to translate the symbols quickly and accurately into the spoken word with which he is already familiar. This fundamental principle of learning to read is too often made more difficult for him than it need be. He comes equipped with a

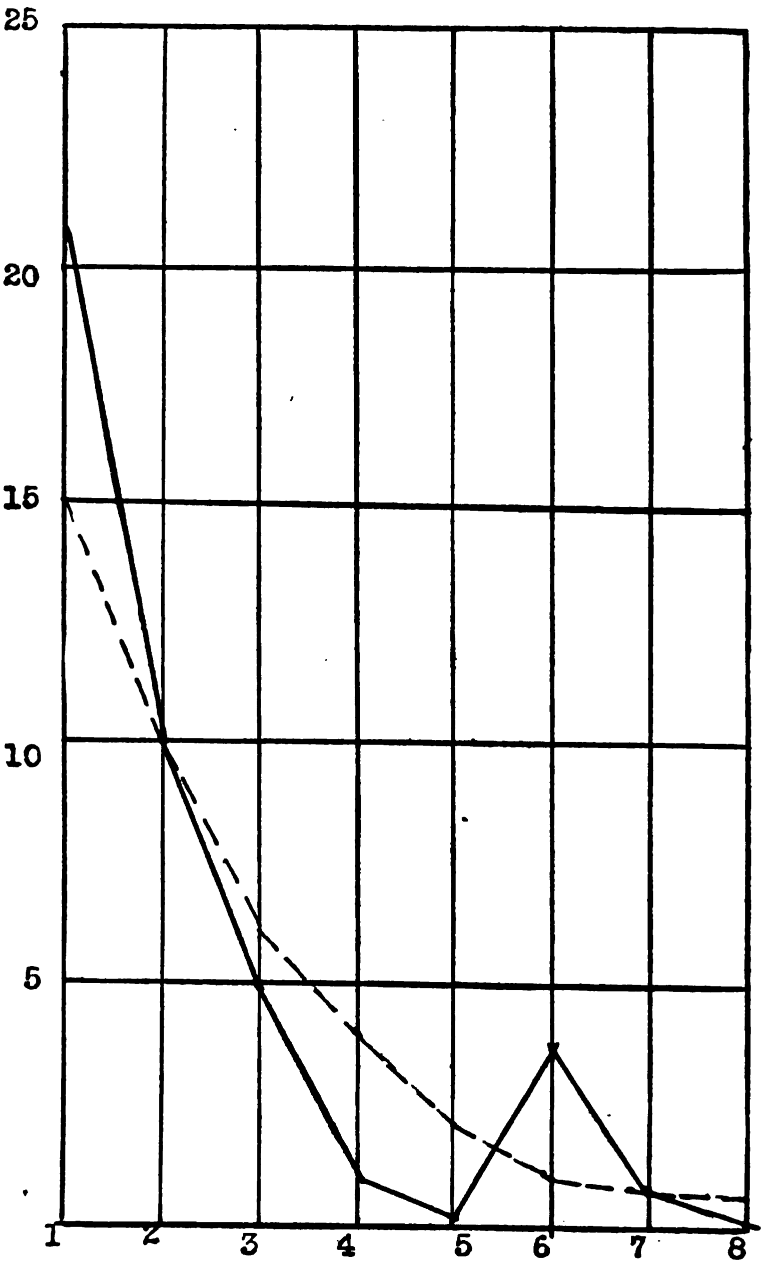

DIAGRAM 1.—Per cent of failures in reading in Elyria at mid-year promotions, January, 1917, compared with Cleveland for June, 1914. Elyria, solid line; Cleveland, dotted line.

large vocabulary of spoken words. He knows their meaning. He can use them at will to express his thoughts on many subjects. These thoughts and words are too often ignored in the early lessons in reading, especially with children who speak a foreign language at home. New matter and the strange symbols confuse him, and frequently after five months of struggle to meet this requirement he fails.

Requirement in first grade.—That the requirement for first-grade reading is much too large is fully demonstrated by the number of failures in all the first grades throughout the city. There needs to be a quickened conscience among the teaching force in regard to failures in their classes, and greater use should be made of the half-hour period at noon designed for the special help of backward children.

Method in first grade.—The method used in the beginning classes lacks the element of adaptability and elasticity. Children are held too long on one unit of work before they proceed to new matter. No provision is made within the method used for either the advanced or the backward child.

Observation in first grade.—The first grades throughout the city were beginning a new term and the method was the same in all reading classes observed. A rhyme was written on the blackboard and the pupils went over the words with the teacher until they were familiar with them. Then individual words were emphasized until the children were able to recognize them out of their setting in the rhyme. Sometimes this analysis of the sentences into word units became monotonous and tiresome, for the children were held on one rhyme until all the words in it were mastered. In one first-grade room there were 18 children, 10 of whom were repeaters, and as they had already spent five months on the same rhymes the repetition of the process must have been most discouraging. Some individual teachers made an attempt to vary the exercises by singing the rhyme, or by playing a game with bean bags and keeping time with the tossing of the bags back and forth as the children chanted the rhyme. This diversion added a fictitious interest to the exercise but did not seem to promote the real object of the lesson, that of functioning words.

PHONICS.

Mechanical difficulties in reading.—It is evident, both from observation and from statistics, that the work in phonics in most schools is desultory and does not carry over into the reading and spelling lessons as it should. The time allotment in phonics in Elyria and in 15 other cities shows that Elyria is no exception to the rule.

Fifty minutes per week in the first three grades are devoted to phonics in the Elyria schools according to the daily program in those grades. Ten minutes a day, extending over three years of school time, mean a long-drawn-out study of a subject that needs to be emphasized only during the first year of school.[1] It could be virtually mastered in two or three months. In all his vocabulary the child uses but 45 sounds, and he needs to learn but 36 letters and letter combinations to represent them. It would seem an easy matter to analyze his spoken words into the 45 fundamentals and then teach him to recognize the symbols which represent them. If this could be done during the first few months of school, it would give the child a mastery of the technique of reading and greatly reduce the percentage of failures in reading in the first grade.

Time allotment for phonics in Elyria and in 15 other cities.

Grades.	Minutes per week.		Per cent of grade time.	
	Elyria.	Fifteen cities.	Elyria.	Fifteen cities.
1	50	102.50	3.9	6.8
2	50	81.72	3.9	5.4
3	50	50.25	3.9	3.3

The time allotment from 15 other cities compared with that of Elyria indicates that this plan has been carried out in some schools. The 15 cities tabulated in the table above show an average of 105.5 minutes a week devoted to phonics in the first grade, as against 50 minutes in Elyria, 81 minutes in the second grade for 50 in Elyria, and the same allotment in both cases for the third grade.

The apportionment which these cities make through the three grades seems an equitable distribution of time for phonics. It shows a high appreciation of the importance of phonics as a subject for study in primary education.

Phonics, or word drills.—Unfortunately, not even the 10 minutes' allotment for phonics per day in Elyria is absolute, for the daily programs give a double assignment to this period which is listed as "phonics, or word drills," in all programs examined except one. The choice lies with the teacher; she can teach either subject during this period, and as the "word drill" is more closely related to the reading lesson than the "phonic drill" she often emphasizes the former at the expense of the latter.

Observation of a phonic lesson in first grade.—Drill cards were used in a first-grade phonic lesson observed. They were presented at random as far as the sounds of the letters were concerned. The drills consisted of initial consonant sounds in blend with the letters *r*, *h*, *l*, etc.—*pr*, *tr*, *fr*, *sh*, *th*, and *bl*, combined with the endings *ad*, *ee*, *y*, *ay*, *over*, and *ound*, to form the words *pray*, *tree*, *fry*, *shad*, *rover*, *round*, etc.

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[1] The data in this section are not calculated on the same basis as the data given in the section on instruction in the intermediate and grammar grades.

This exercise, like many of the phonic drills observed, was a drill on the quick recognition of the symbol by sight and the pronunciation of its corresponding sound. There was no training of the ear to the quick recognition of sound apart from its association with the visible symbol, a type of training which is much needed by these children and is greatly neglected in all grades. No observation was made of a development lesson in which the sound of any letter was first presented to the class.

In general all lessons in phonics that were observed were used as sight drills rather than sound drills. It is suggested that the symbol be used only occasionally until the children become expert in discovering sound units in the words they use ordinarily in conversation in the schoolroom. The work from charts and cards is apt to become perfunctory and to lose all spontaneity. It is suggested that the teacher originate and prepare new matter and new methods for these lessons.

Tests for reading vocabulary.—The Haggarty Scale for Reading Vocabulary was used in the first three grades in selected schools to determine the child's proficiency in pronouncing words. The test consists of lists of words, 25 phonetic and 25 sight words selected from the Jones list, and printed on small cards in columns arranged in groups of 5 according to a scale of increasing difficulty. The first group of words is numbered 50, and the list consists of the words *would*, *out*, *bit*, *that*, and *fox;* line 60, following line 50, is 10 points more difficult than the preceding line and consists of the words *ring*, *cut*, *time*, *seed*, *more;* this is followed by lines 80, 100, and 120, of five words each, the points of difficulty being indicated by the number of the line.

Each child was tested alone and by the same person. A card was handed to him and he was told to read the list of words it contained: if he hesitated, he was told to pass on to the next word. The child was not marked in percentages on this test, but a careful record was kept of his reaction on each word; a space left if he pronounced the word correctly, a zero if he made no attempt, and the word he substituted for the correct word was written in the space reserved for the record of his score in the test.

THE HAGGARTY TEST FOR READING VOCABULARY IN PRIMARY GRADES.

CHART I. Class 1-A, in school five months. *PHONETIC WORDS.*

Pupils	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Sex	B	G	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	G
Age	6	6	6	6	6	7	6	6	6	6
Line 50.										
would	......	......	0	wald	so	......	......	ode	wind	blow.
out	......	0	0	......	toe	......	......	0	but	not.
bit	......	0	big	......	ball	......	......	0	bit	bite.
that	......	0	what	......	cat	......	this	0	......	0
fox	goat	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	ox.
Line 60.										
ring	......	0	0	......	ray	riden	......	rocks	rine	rain.
cut	......	0	0	cout	kay	......	cat	cat	0	cat.
time	......	......	0	......	tay	......	......	0	0	0
seed	......	feed	see	......	say	......	feed	0	......	0
more	0	0	0	......	mow	0	0	0	0	0
Line 80.										
duck	0	0	......	0	old	0	0	......	0	0
song	......	sing	sing	......	some	......	......	some	0	sing.
dance	0	0	......	......	pay	0	0	0	0	0
feel	......	0	feed	......	fade	......	feed	feed	fall	feed.
hot	0	0	0	hote	toe	0	0	hote	hote	hote.
Line 100.										
dig	big	big	big	......	pig	dite	dog	dige	dog	pig.
sled	......	0	slight	slid	slee	0	0	sleed	0	sling.
sent	0	0	0	......	tie	0	0	0	0	0
match	0	0	0	......	they	0	0	meadow	0	mage.
drive	0	0	0	......	they	0	0	0	0	0
Line 120.										
snag	0	0	0	snake	some	0	0	0	snug	0
slope	0	0	0	......	slow	0	slopy	0	slopy	slopy.
rang	0	0	0	......	run	ramen.	0	ring	0	sing.
lace	0	0	0	......	lay	0	lake	......	0	0
care	0	0	0	......	cull	0	0	0	0	carry.

Influence of phonetic training shown in this test.—Chart I is the record of the children of a 1–A class in beginning reading who have been in school five months, as tested by the Haggarty Scale for Reading Vocabulary. It throws an interesting light on the influence which phonetic training has on the ability of children to pronounce words. The pupils are numbered on the upper line and on the next two lines below a record of their sex and age is given. The list of test words is given at the left of the chart in a vertical line and each child's reaction is recorded in the spaces at the right of the word lists.

An individual pupil's record is read down the column and each child's attempt on a certain word is found by reading across the chart from left to right. Of the 250 trials on this list of phonetic words in this class of pupils 190 were missed, and of these 144 were attempted. Nearly all these attempts show a decided phonetic influence. They show, also, for this class, at least, a state of mind that is "confusion worse confounded." The word "dig," for instance, has 1 correct pronunciation out of 10 trials and 9 attempts, in this order—*big*, *big*, *big*, *pig*, *dite*, *dog*, *dige*, *dog*, *pig*. The consonant difficulty here is strikingly apparent. Five substitutions for the letter *d* occur, the letter *b* three times, and the letter *p* twice. The vowel difficulty occurs four times, long *i* confused with short *i* twice, and with short *o* twice. One little girl, 6 years old, whose record is recorded as No. 5, attempted every word in the list of 25 with 1 correct pronunciation and 24 incorrect. Her difficulty is evidently with vowels, for she gives the initial consonant sound correctly 13 times out of 24 and the vowel sound only 4 times accurately. Her other attempts are far afield and they show no phonetic influence.

THE HAGGARTY TEST FOR READING VOCABULARY IN PRIMARY GRADES.

CHART II. Class 3-A, in school two years. *PHONETIC WORDS.*

Pupils	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Sex	G	B	B	G	B	B	B	G	B	B
Age	9	8	9	9	9	8	8	7	9	10
Line 50.										
would	world				world		world			world.
out										
bit										pit.
that										
fox										
Line 60.										
ring										rain.
cut										
time										
seed		said								
more										
Line 80.										
duck		dusk								dick.
song										
dance										danes.
feel					feed					
hot		hit		hoot			hote			hut.
Line 100.										
dig										dog.
sled				slid						sleed.
sent		see								
match		march			0					
drive		driven								druve.
Line 120.										
snag	nag	snail			sang		sang			sang.
slope					0					
rang		ring			ring					rain.
lace		lake			0		last			
care			0							sore.

Chart II shows the results of tests in a 3–B class who had been in school two years. The same words were given to the same number of children and under the same conditions as before. Of the 36 words missed in 250 trials, 32 were attempted. Many of the attempts indicate that phonetic analysis had not been utilized, but that the flash-card method had been adopted. Many show the influence of phonetic drills, however; the word "sang" occurs three times as a substitute for *snag*, *ring* twice for *rang*, *slid* for *sled*, and *hit*, *hoot*, *hote*, and *hut* for *hot.* Nearly all these substitutions show a vowel difficulty which should not trouble children entering the third grade. A suggestion for a more suggestive and incisive treatment of phonetics has already been made, and may well be repeated here.

Value of reading vocabulary tests.—These charts in the hands of the teachers of these children should prove to be most illuminating and suggestive. Here is an opportunity for the teacher to put her hand on the weak spot in reading vocabulary for every member of her class. One child needs drills on the vowel sounds, another on the consonants. When a child has formed the habit of guessing at words, like number 5, in Chart I, and is unconscious of making 24 errors in 25 attempts, a special analysis of words into sounds and symbols is needed to create a consciousness of sound values in the child's mind.

Rates of progress and the evidence of new difficulties will be revealed if tests of this kind are given frequently. Comparisons of proficiency of pupils in other school buildings of the same grade will prove of value to the teacher when measured by this scale.

The weekly time allotment for reading for the first grade in Elyria is 207.5 minutes, while the average for 20 other cities is 388 minutes. Elyria devotes one-third less time to reading than is usually given, which may in part account for the per cent of failure in this subject. In the second grade the time allotment is practically the same and still much lower than for corresponding grades in other cities. In the third grade, where the Elyria curve of failure in reading drops to 5 per cent, the time allotment is about normal. It is suggested that the time allotment for reading in the first grade be lengthened and that an effort be made by other means as well to lessen the number of failures. In the section of this survey devoted to arithmetic it is shown that number work is receiving a disproportionate amount of time in the first grade. Some of the time given to arithmetic might well be applied to reading.

Time allotment in reading in Elyria and in 20 other cities.

Grades.	Minutes per week.		Per cent of grade time.	
	Elyria.	20 cities.	Elyria.	20 cities.
1	207.5	388	16.2	20
2	215.0	355	16.8	23
3	195.5	275	15.4	18

Development lessons in the study recitation in reading.—The reading material in Elyria is drawn largely from the best sources, namely, folklore, myth, and fable. The reading lessons in all classes are reproductions of the finest literature that the world has produced. These lessons should be treated as more than mere oral reading exercises, perfunctory and formal, in which one child reads one paragraph, another following with the next, and so on. Some of the time should be taken for the development of appreciation. The socialized recitation is the type of exercise for these lessons. The following outline is submitted as a suggestion:

OUTLINE FOR THE STUDY RECITATION IN READING.

I. Assignment of the lesson: Arouse interest by—
    1. Questions.
    2. Informal conversations.
    3. Reading the text by pupils and teacher together.
II. Reading the lesson, orally and silently.
    1. Section the story.
    2. Make an outline.
    3. Retell important parts.
    4. Visualize.
    5. Dramatize.
    6. Read silently for appreciation.
    7. Read orally for expression, fluency, etc.
    8. Memorize choice phrases and sentences.

Divided periods in reading.—In some cities the need for training for appreciation is realized, and the time schedule has been changed so that 30 minutes are devoted to each lesson in reading. Fifteen minutes of this time is taken for a talk about the story, and the other 15 for training in proficiency.

Observation in second grade in reading for appreciation.—One of the second-grade reading lessons observed dealt with the story of "The Three Billy Goats Gruff," from the Free and Treadwell Primer. The aim of this lesson was to read for appreciation. The children stood grouped about the teacher in an informal way, and the social spirit strongly dominated the entire exercise. The children had already read part of the story, and a review of this was being given by the pupils in reply to the skillful questions of the teacher.

TEACHER. What story did you have yesterday?
PUPIL. The Billy goats.
TEACHER. How many goats were there?
PUPIL. There were three.
TEACHER. What were their names?
PUPIL. Little Billy Goat Gruff, etc.
TEACHER. Who lived under the bridge?
PUPIL. A troll.
TEACHER. What was on the other side?
PUPIL. A hill.
TEACHER. What was on the hill?
PUPIL. Pretty grass.
TEACHER. What did the goats want to do?
PUPIL. Get fat.
TEACHER. What did the troll want?
PUPIL. He wanted to eat the goats up. That's what trolls like to do.
TEACHER. Did he eat Little Billy Goat Gruff? Let's read and find out.

(Children read from page 83.)

TEACHER. Did the troll say that? Did the Billy goat say it? Which Billy goat said it? What is the second word? (little) I suppose you would not say it that way, would you? Just suppose some one was going to eat you.

The teacher's questions brought out the vital points of this fine old tale and helped the children to appreciate much of its charm. The oral reading was excellent. Reading for appreciation was emphasized throughout the entire recitation, only one reference being made to the mechanical side of the reading.

Recitations of this kind should be more common than they are in the Elyria schools. The study recitation outline is recommended as a guide to teachers who desire to improve their method of teaching reading after the manner of this recitation.

I. *Failures:* There should be a quickened conscience among the teaching force in regard to failures, and greater use should be made of the half-hour period at noon designed for special help to backward children.

II. *Phonics:*
   1. Longer periods should be allotted to the teaching of phonics.
   2. A few weeks of oral training in sounds should be given before the symbols are presented.
   3. The work should be thoroughly systematized and become a a regular part of the daily program.
   4. There should be a closer application of phonics to all language subjects.

III. *Reading for appreciation:*
   1. The time allotment for reading in the first grade should be increased.
   2. A period should be set apart each day for training in reading for appreciation.

LANGUAGE.

Oral language.—The lack of opportunity for oral expression was the most noticeable defect in the school program. The individual pupils observed in the first three grades spoke less than 100 words during a session of 260 minutes. This opportunity came only in the recitation period and consisted of counting numbers and reading words from the blackboard. No time was given to free and spontaneous expression; no questions were asked by the pupil; and no opinion was offered by him on any subject.

This table shows that little provision has been made in Elyria for language training in primary grades. The daily program gives 10 minutes a day to oral language in the first grade, and this is usually listed as " sense training or games," " dramatizing," " games and folk dances." In the second grade a little over 8 minutes is devoted to oral language. In the third grade 20 minutes three times a week is set apart for " nature study," " oral language," " poem," as wished, which indicates that the children are not receiving any definite systematic training in this important subject. One of the third-grade daily programs lists one period of 15 minutes on Tuesday for "language games," "talk of grammatical errors," "describe a picture," or "reproduce a story." The fourth grade lists a 25-minute period on Monday and Wednesday for "language," but this consists of written work only.

Time allotment in language in Elyria and in 20 other cities.

Grades.	Minutes per week.		Proportion of grade time.	
	Elyria.	Twenty cities.	Elyria.	Twenty cities.
			Per cent.	*Per cent.*
1	51.0	133	3.9	8.8
2	43.0	144	3.3	9.6
3	62.5	170	4.9	11.3

In comparing Elyria with 20 other cities, we find that nearly three times as much attention is paid to oral language in other cities as in Elyria. We find, also, from observation and reference to daily programs that the work in Elyria is not language work, but that the time allotted to this period is distributed over a large number of subjects already enumerated in this report.

Importance of oral language training.—Too much can not be said in favor of oral language training in primary grades. All authorities agree that the ear is the important organ to be considered in teaching little children to speak, to read, and to write. "Address the ear principally," Gouin exhorts the teacher of language, "afterwards take as auxiliaries the eye and hand in reading and writing." Huey agrees, "The ear, and not the eye, is the arbiter of speech; the mouth, not the pen, its greatest instrument."

It is hardly possible that the children in the Elyria schools are receiving more than a minimum amount of language training with such limited time allotment and such indefinite assignment of subject matter.

Suggestive material for oral language lessons.—So far as observed in these grades there was no correlation of the work of the school with the interests and experiences of the children out of school. The number work, the language lessons, the games, and plays were all too far removed from the immediate interests of the child.

Table of out-of-school activities.—A table of out-of-school activities is included in this report as suggestive material for oral language lessons, for number lessons, and for the other activities of the schoolroom to be correlated with the regular subjects of study. These data were gathered from children in the first four grades in the Elyria schools and are recorded under the subjects of home work, home games, vacation activities, church entertainments, and books read during the year.

OUT-OF-SCHOOL ACTIVITIES OF PRIMARY SCHOOL CHILDREN.

Grades.	Home work.	Per cent.	Home games.	Per cent.	Vacation activities.	Per cent.	Church activities.	Per cent.	Books read.	Per cent.
First grade, 20 pupils	Set the table	50	Hide and go seek	100	Gardening:		Some entertainment	20	Tick Tock	10
	Sweep for mother	75	Hide the thimble	100	Pull carrots	......			Peter Rabbit	15
	Wash the dishes	80	Play house	50	Hoe garden	......			Old Mother Hubbard	10
	Wipe the dishes	100	Play with wagon	50	Pick tomatoes	......			Jack be Nimble	5
	Mop the floor	50	Automatic toys	10	Plant onions	......				
	Clean snow	80	Sled	100	Pull weeds	......				
			Washing set	30	Plant potatoes while daddy digs hole	......				
			Dollies that shut their eyes (girls)	100	Break earth in pieces with a hoe when father digs					
Second grade, 17 pupils	Carry dinner to father	6	Bowling alley at home	6	Play around house	48	Socials	18	Old Mother Hubbard	18
	Wash dishes	50	Hide the thimble	30	Went to grandparents	30	Sunday school	12	Ding dong	6
	Wipe dishes	50	Hide and seek	100	Lake	24	Easter	12	Cinderella	18
	Go to store	78	Coasting	30	Swimming	12	Christmas	18	Rub-a-dub-dub	6
	Make bed	12	Fox and geese	48	Cowboy	6	Bazaar	6	Little Jack Horner	6
	Clear table	6	Play house	24	Indian	6			Barber, Barber, Shave a Pig	6
	Answer phone	6	Old maid	6	Visiting	30				
	Iron	12	Tap the ice box	12	Country	12			Uncle Tom's Cabin	6
	Care for baby	6	Indian	24	Parties	12			Grimm's Fairy Tales	6
	Set table	6	Old Mother Goose	6	Automobile riding	6				
	Dust	50	Cowboy	18	Play war	6				
	Tend fire	6	Spin top	6	Help in garden	6				
	Clean walks	6	Ring around Rosie	6						
	Sweep floor	42								
	Take out ashes	18								
	Rock baby	6								
	Mop floor	6								
Third grade, 44 pupils	Wipe dishes	25	Tap the ice box	2	Go to seaside	2	Easter	6	Beautiful Joe	2
	Set the table	20	Tag	2	Play in sand	6	Children's day	2	Uncle Tom's Cabin	2
	Wash dishes	50	Bean bag	2	Swimming	18	Lecture course	2	Camp Fire Girls	2
	Go to store	12	Postman	2	Boat trip	4	Christmas	20	Black Beauty	2
	Work in barn	2	Indian	2	Fishing	6	Socials	8	What Tommy Did	4
	Watch the baby	4	Ball	2	Dolls	6			Jack and the Beanstalk	2
	Dust	18	Old maid	2	Dishes	2				
	Make the beds	12	Checkers	12	Sleds	2			Peter and Polly	2
	Sweep	25	Chess	2	Party	2			Animal Stories	2
	Tend to fire	2	Embroider	2	Hide and go seek	4			Play Days	2
	Carry washing	2	Lotto	6	Ball	12			Punch and Judy	2
	Bring in coal	2	Doll	8	Pool	4			Fluffy Tail's Adventures	2
	Hoe in garden	2	Cars	2	Games	6				
	Run errands	2	Coasting	6	Visiting	16			Beauty and the Beast	2
	Chop wood	2	Hide and go seek	28	Lake	4			Little People of the Garden	2
	Carry ashes	2	Toys	4	Automobile	2				
	Clean walks	2	School	8	Play war	4			Bed Time Stories	2
	Make a garden	2	Fish pan	2	Play farmer	2			Little Prudy's Series	4

			Dominoes	4	Jump rope	4			Night Before Christmas	2
			Gun	2	Play house	8			Busy Little Folks	2
			Show	2	Tag	2			Alice in Wonderland	4
			Snowball	2	Roller skate	2			Through the Looking Glass	4
			Pool	2					Andersen's Fairy Tales	4
			Skate	2					Grimm's Fairy Tales	2
			Parchesi	2					Readers	75
			Little shoppers	2					Cinderella	4
			Hide the thimble	12					Nature Story Book	6
			Play house	8					Grit the Young Boat Man	2
			Leap frog	2					Brownie's Adventures	4
			Blindman's buff	6					Mother Goose	4
			Fox and geese	8					Ten Little Indians	2
			Red riding hood	2					Story of Liberty Bell	2
			Mulberry	2					Robinson Crusoe	6
									Bunny Brown Bobby	2
									Lame Prince	2
									Water Babies	2
									Tommy Tip Top	2
									Fox Story	2
									Pony Rider	2
									Boys in New Mexico	2
									Folk Lore	10
									That's Why	16
									Horace Mann	8
									Rose Bud Fireside Series	2
									The Wise Old Rabbit	2
Fourth grade, 14 pupils	Clean stove	7	Duck on a rock	21	Fishing	7	Christmas	56	Readers	14
	Wash dishes	84	Hide and go seek	100	Ball	21	Easter	14	Bird Book	35
	Make beds	42	Tag	21	Cheese it	7	Socials	21	Animal Book	7
	Mop floor	14	Tap the ice box	28	Cowboy	7	Thanksgiving	7	Pony Riders in Pennsylvania	14
	Dust	14	Ball	35	Visiting	42	New Year	7	Pony Riders in the Ozarks	7
	Carry fuel	28	Hide the thimble	35	Jacks				Alger books	14
	Sweep floor	56	Jump the rope	14	Jump rope	7			Now or Never	7
	Care of baby	7	Parchesi	21	Play house	7			Boat Club	7
	Care of garden	35	Fox and geese	7	Marbles	7			Robinsoe Crusoe	14
	Carry out ashes	7	Checkers	7	Swimming	14			The Yankee Middy	7
	Set table	21	Leap frog	21	Fishing	7			Folk Lore	42
	Build fires	7	Hat in row	7	Lake	7			Bible	7
	Go to store	7	Jacks	7	Riding	7			Tin Box	7
			Toys	7	Skating	7			What Tommy Did	14
						7			World of Girls	7
									Adventures of a Brownie	7
									Brown's Fairy Tales	7
									Uncle Tom's Cabin	7
									Peter Rabbit	7

The table offers a wide range of subjects from which to select material for oral language lessons. Interesting topics of study for nature-study lessons are listed under vacation activities. One child reports a garden activity, "I break earth in pieces with the hoe when father digs"; which suggests to the resourceful teacher a series of interesting lessons in the preparation of soils for planting. "I plant potatoes while daddy digs the holes" introduces the subject of germination and offers an opportunity for valuable experiments in sprouting potatoes, planting bulbs, etc. Another suggestive report, "I pull carrots," leads the teacher directly to a series of lessons on the value of the roots of some plants as a food supply, and the best ways of cooking carrots, beets, parsnips, and similar roots.

The proportion of children in each grade who are engaged in different home activities is reported. These reveal in a concise way those occupations and interests most common to the children of Elyria. For instance, all the children in the first grade wipe the dishes as a part of their home work, 50 per cent in the second grade, and 25 per cent in the third grade. It is within the power of the teachers in these grades to make these homely activities interesting and to lift them above the plane of drudgery they so often occupy. A practical, usable course of study on home economics might be prepared for the elementary grades from reports of this kind.

The reading interests shown in this table should be utilized in various ways as a basis for oral language. The reports on books read would be valuable; an exchange of books between pupils and discussions of the story and characters should find some place in the course of study as a phase of the work in library reading. The games, the vacation sports like swimming and fishing, the church and Sunday school interests, all make up the child's world and should find some place in his school life.

SUGGESTIONS CONCERNING THE TEACHING OF LANGUAGE IN ELYRIA.

1. The time allotment should be lengthened in the primary grades.
2. A systematic course of study should be mapped out with a definite assignment of subject matter for each semester in each grade.
3. Each teacher should have the opportunity to study for herself the best literature for children, and should receive training in this most necessary art, that of telling stories to little children.

ARITHMETIC.

The number of failures in arithmetic in Elyria is unusually large in the lower grades. In the first grade, 17.5 per cent of the children failed at the mid-year promotion in February, 1917; 6.5 per cent failed in the second grade, and about 12 per cent in the third and fourth grades. Cleveland's rate of failure for June, 1914, was 2 per cent in the first grade, and 4 per cent in the second grade, but

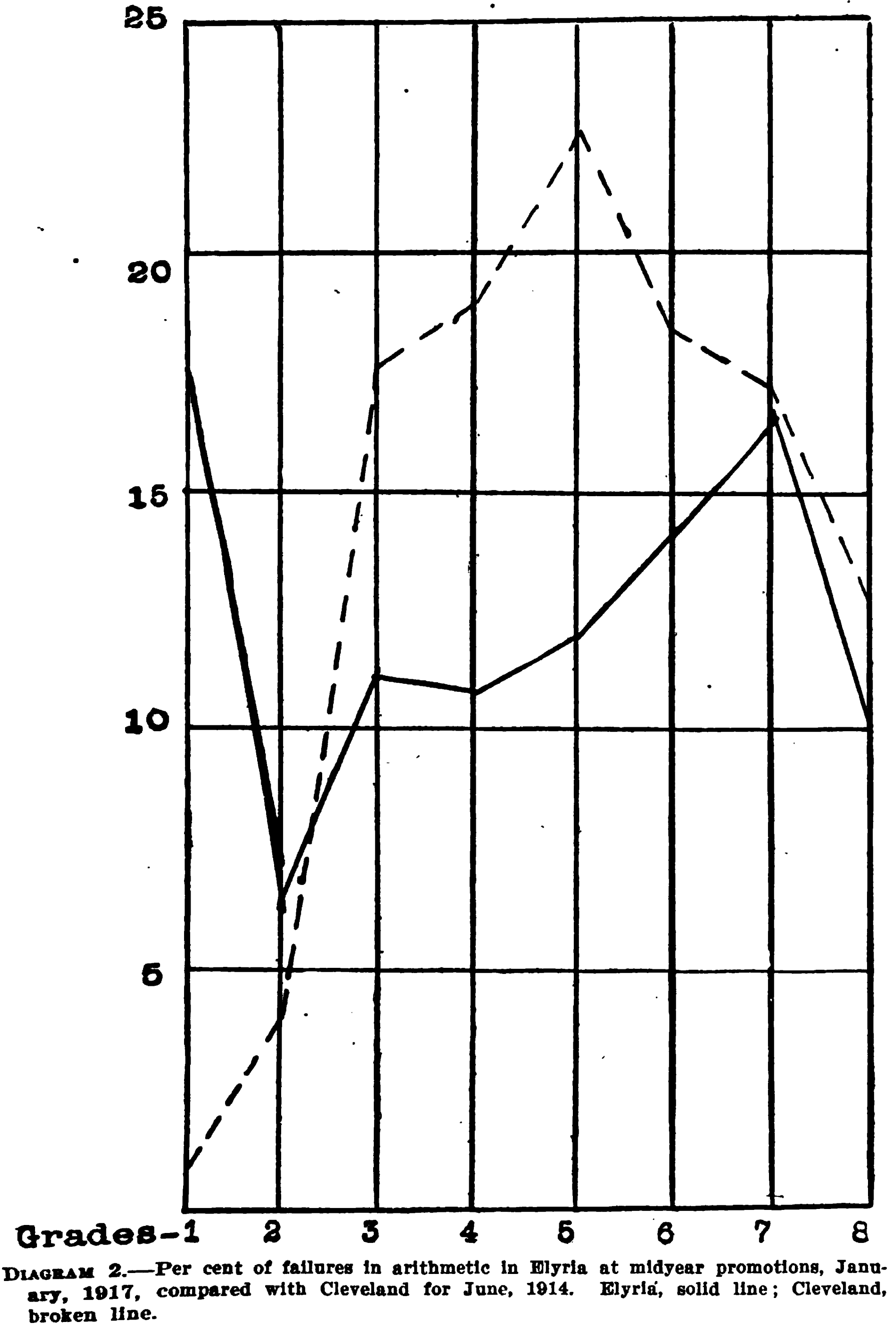

DIAGRAM 2.—Per cent of failures in arithmetic in Elyria at midyear promotions, January, 1917, compared with Cleveland for June, 1914. Elyria, solid line; Cleveland, broken line.

in the third grade the Cleveland curve rises to 17.5 per cent, and to 18 per cent in the fourth.

Both in Elyria and Cleveland the difficulty in the third and fourth grades is due, no doubt, to the introduction of the principle of carrying, which perplexes children more than it should. It is difficult to fix responsibility for failure in any subject, but probably the lack of a pedagogical development of subject matter is one of the chief factors.

Failures in the first grade.—The difficulty in first-grade arithmetic in Elyria, as shown by the curve in diagram 2, is undoubtedly due to the lack of adaptation of subject matter. Number work in the first grade should be largely a matter of counting and measuring. Demands for measuring are found in the manual arts, in nature study, in the home and school activities, and in the child's own personal interests. The pupils in Elyria are weighed each month under the direction of the school nurse, and this might well be used as illustrative material in number lessons. The pupil's height, his age and birthday dates, all afford excellent matter for applied number work. During the survey in Elyria schools a request came to the teachers for the children to report on the size of the back yards adjoining their homes. Here was a demand for the measuring and computing of areas, which would have been of vital importance in the making of home and school gardens. No use was made, however, so far as could be determined of this opportunity.

Logical development of number emphasized.—Judging from the observation of many classes in arithmetic, from an examination of daily programs, and from conferences with teachers, the logical development of the subject of arithmetic is the only one considered in the primary grades. In the first semester the children count to 100 by ones and tens. They read and write these numbers and add and subtract in simple combinations. A marked rigidity characterizes this work in all the primary grades, both in the recitation periods and in the outlines prepared by the teachers from the formal course of study. The entire class in arithmetic moves through this required work with lock-step precision; the bright children are restrained, and those who are backward join the ranks of the "repeaters" at the end of the semester.

Time allotment in arithmetic.—With twice as much time spent on arithmetic in the first grade as in 20 other cities the ratio of failure in Elyria is abnormally high. In the second grade, where the time given is about equal to that of other cities, the failure score corresponds to that recorded in Cleveland and elsewhere. In the third grade the failures increase, and the time allotment is about 3 per cent below the average.

It would seem then that the quality and not the quantitiy of work done in Elyria needs attention; that much of the time now spent on arithmetic could well be given to reading and language and to schoolroom activities more in harmony with the child's development at this period of his school life.

Time allotment in arithmetic in Elyria and 20 other cities.

Grades.	Minutes per week.		Ratio of grade time.	
	Elyria.	Twenty cities.	Elyria.	Twenty cities.
			Per cent.	*Per cent.*
1	145.00	72.50	11.3	4.8
2	135.50	148.75	10.6	9.9
3	148.55	218.00	11.5	14.5

Skilled supervision needed.—Applied number is difficult for an untrained teacher. She must know how to find a legitimate demand for number in the several subjects of study and how to connect the fundamentals in arithmetic with the problems which arise in those subjects.

It is evident that the social aspect of number is almost wholly ignored in Elyria, and that the abstract treatment is overemphasized. Illustration with objects was seldom used, and measurement with the ruler was never made a part of the number exercise. There is need of a supervisor in this work who is especially trained in primary methods to help the teachers formulate a pragmatic course of study in arithmetic.

SUGGESTIONS CONCERNING THE TEACHING OF ARITHMETIC IN ELYRIA.

1. A study of other courses of study in cities like Cleveland is recommended to note the difference in requirement as a possible cause for the wide variation in per cent of failure.

2. Adaptation of the subject matter to the different grades in the primary school is recommended, and greater emphasis should be placed upon the social bearing which number should have for the children. The child's need of number and his use of number should be the basis of his work and not the logical development of the subject wholly from the scientific standpoint.

3. Less time should be devoted to the study of arithmetic in the first and second grades, and greater stress should be placed upon the cultural subjects of reading and language.

4. A skilled supervisor is needed to assist the teachers in this work.

PENMANSHIP.

Method of teaching penmanship.—The exercises in penmanship consisted of drills on movement, sliding the hand back and forth over the slate as the arm rested on the large muscle in the forearm. Rhythm was emphasized by the use of a small phonograph, which was a source of great interest to the children and put considerable enthusiasm into what would have been otherwise a dull lesson. Ovals and circles, upward and downward strokes were practiced and occasionally a single letter was given as a copy. The stress then was put on the form of the letter, and the movement was of the fingers only.

Material inadequate.—Slates were used because of the difficulty in obtaining paper and pencils. It should be pointed out that slates and slate pencils are a poor medium for writing lessons. The friction of the pencil and the obstruction of the frame are hindrances to ease, grace, and speed.

The tops of the desks in the primary grades are too small to allow the arm to rest on them; the children hold their arms in the air and used the finger and hand movement. When the copybooks were used the writing became a painstaking copy of a letter rather than a free exercise in movement.

SPELLING.

Subject matter in spelling.—The spelling lists used in the primary grades were taken largely from the reading lessons. The time allotment amounted to about 20 minutes per day in the second and third grades. The assignment for seat work in spelling was usually inadequate; sometimes only two words were given for a second-grade lesson to fill a period of 15 minutes.

Method of teaching spelling.—The words were written on the blackboard and were spelled orally by the class in concert. They were then copied on paper, and finally written in exercise books from dictation. The exercise was a training of the eye to recognize the different symbols in a word without considering the part which the ear plays in the functioning and the analysis of words.

No application of phonics to the spelling was observed. Sight words and phonetic words all received the same treatment, and were all taught in the same way.

Suggestions for the spelling lesson.—The oral exercise in the spelling recitations should be lengthened in order to train the children's power to form auditory images. There is no greater aid to correct spelling than the power to hear the different sound elements in a word and to represent those sounds with the appropriate symbols.

GAMES.

OBSERVATION OF SENSE GAMES.

First game.—The aim of this game was to give a drill on the recognition of the three primary and secondary colors.

The method consists of calling six children to the floor, each holding a colored ball in his hand. They stand in line, arranged according to the order of color in the spectrum. First the class are asked to name the colors; then the balls are changed about and the class are asked to rearrange them in their proper order. Finally, the balls are hidden and the class are asked to locate the colors.

Second game.—The aim of this game was to test the child's memory of the location of different members of the class when they are in their respective seats.

One member of the class was blindfolded while four others left their seats and hid in various parts of the room. Then the blind was removed from the child's eyes and he was asked to name the absent pupils, to locate their seats, and to describe their appearance.

Third game.—This game was designed to test a child's sense of hearing. A blindfolded child was seated with his back to the class and two erasers were placed on the floor behind him. The child was a "watchdog" and the erasers were "bags of gold." The game consisted of individual pupils in the class "stealing" the bags of gold without the watchdog's knowledge. If he heard, he called out, "Who is it? Is it John?" and John answered, "Yes; it is John." When the watchdog failed to hear, the children all clapped their hands.

The value of games.—For an occasional exercise for sense training these games were excellent, but they lacked spontaneity and afforded no opportunity for the pupil's initiative. There should be greater freedom in any game than was allowed in these. A series of games that cultivate resourcefulness and give an opportunity for physical exercise are recommended as a part of the daily program in every room.

RECESSES AND DISMISSALS.

Waste of time.—The children have a 20-minute period for recess in the primary grades in Elyria, both in the morning and in the afternoon. They pass to the cloakroom and get their wraps, then back to their seats to put them on, and when all are ready they pass out, first to a basement toilet, where the janitor assists in "keeping order," then in line to the school yard.

During the snowy weather they stood about with their hands in their pockets, shuffling their feet in the snow or swinging on an iron bar which formed the fence in the school yard.

Putting on wraps.—The recess period was appreciably shortened by waste of time in getting wraps and putting them on, and in waiting for all the school to pass out together. It may not be possible to make this an individual matter, allowing each child to leave the room when he is ready, but it would greatly lengthen this period for most children if this could be done.

Some form of entertainment needed.—Some entertainment should be provided for this period, both within and without the schoolroom. Large yards and open spaces surround most of these schools and afford excellent opportunity for games and exercises. In some yards an embankment had been thrown up, and the inclosed space flooded so that the children might skate during the cold weather. Some school yards were fitted up with a few pieces of apparatus for physical exercises, and some yards were arranged for games and sports, but where no one was especially designated to lead in these exercises the children made little use of them.

An assignment for this work needed.—It is suggested that one teacher each week be appointed to provide some form of recreation for the recess period in each building. Valuable suggestions for the recess recreation period may be found in the table of out-of-school activities, included in this report, especially those designated by the children themselves under the head of home games, for the first four grades.

NEED OF KINDERGARTENS.

Value of kindergartens.—Another cause of failure in the first grade in Elyria is undoubtedly the lack of kindergarten training for the children before they enter school.

English.—The kindergarten prepares children for the work of the first grade, and this is especially true of children of foreign-born parents who speak a foreign language at home. In language training alone the kindergarten is indispensable. In Elyria, where so large a proportion of the population is foreign born, the school authorities can ill afford to weaken the school system at its most vulnerable point.

School adjustment.—As an introduction to the school régime, and as a training in school habits, it is most important, since his term in the kindergarten saves the child a similar amount of preparation for school work in the first grade.

Social adjustments, the ability to work in harmony with his fellows and his teacher, motor control, the ability to coordinate his motor activities with his will and understanding, obedience and discipline, these are only a part of the many lessons he learns under the kindly guidance of his school mother. Add to those his acquisition of knowledge and its constant application to his social needs and uses and we have a sum of indisputable arguments in favor of this training. In no other school department will he find this important correlation.

Data from investigations.—To those who still doubt the efficiency of kindergarten training we cite a number of investigations lately conducted in various parts of the country. Berry's statistics[1] regarding the effect of kindergarten training on promotions in Michigan disclose the fact that the percentage of repeaters in first grade is 69.5 greater in towns having no kindergartens than in towns which have them. Mrs. Bradford found from a study of the Kenosha (Wis.) schools,[2] in comparing a group of 925 kindergarten-trained children with a group of 738 children without kindergarten training, that fewer retardations occurred in the first group. Supt. Hervey, of Pawtucket, R. I., discovered that 60 per cent of children entering first grade without kindergarten training failed as against 35 per cent of those having that training.

Conclusions.—It is especially recommended that the kindergarten school system be reestablished in Elyria. There seems to be an imperative need for such training in Elyria on account of its large foreign population. Undoubtedly a continuation of these schools will do much toward raising the standard of instruction above the plane of dry formality which it now occupies.

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[1] Berry, C. S. A study of Retardation, Acceleration, Elimination, and Repetition in the Public Elementary Schools of 225 towns and cities of Michigan.

[2] Bradford, Mary D. The Kindergarten and Its Relation to Retardation. N. E. A., 1912, pp. 624–629.

Chapter VII.

INSTRUCTION IN INTERMEDIATE AND GRAMMAR GRADES.

READING.

The time given to reading in the schools of Elyria ranks approximately midway between that given in Cleveland and that in 50 other American cities.

Time given to reading.[1]

Grades.	Fifty cities.	Elyria.	Cleveland.
	Per cent.	*Per cent.*	*Per cent.*
1	31	30.5	43
2	26	30.3	36
3	21	27.7	32
4	16	17.1	22
5	13	17.0	18
6	12	14.0	15
7	10	15.0	17
8	10	11.4	17
Average	17.4	20.4	25

READING IN THE UPPER GRADES.

An analysis of the reading material used in the upper grades indicates that only about one-third is of a literary nature or of a nature calculated to lay a foundation for literary selections, such as the story of the Iliad. The rest may be classified as history, civics, geography, hygiene, and nature study.

That some nonliterary material has a place in the reading class is not questioned, but that this material should make up two-thirds of what is read may well be questioned. It makes of the reading class a dumping ground for the overflow from other classes and for material that should have an independent place in the curriculum. This is unfair to the other subjects and robs the reading class of its proper spirit. It is therefore recommended that the major part of the miscellaneous material be transferred to those subjects in which it is germane.

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[1] The figures in this and succeeding tables for Cleveland are taken from Bobbitt's volume in the Cleveland (Ohio) Educational Survey entitled "What the Schools Teach and Might Teach," and those for 50 American cities from Holmes's paper on "Time Distribution by Subjects and Grades in Representative Cities," published in Part I of the Fourteenth Yearbook of the Society for the Study of Education (University of Chicago Press, 1915).

In calculating the percentages for these tables the time spent in recess and opening exercises is not included. Reading, furthermore, includes phonics, literature, and memorizing poems, as well as reading in the narrow sense.

Nature study is not now scheduled as a separate subject in the Elyria schools, but it should be. This subject should not lose contact with the concrete, it is true, but in giving an appreciate understanding of the plant and animal world, books like "Plant and Animal Children," "Ways of Woodfolk," and "The Bird World," which are now classed as supplementary reading, form an indispensable aid. These books are written by people who love their subject, and are therefore well adapted to inspire a similar love in the pupils. They fall into the class of natural history rather than science, and are indicative of the spirit that should pervade the science work in the elementary school and even the junior high school. Here the method of scientific dissection and analysis is not yet in place.

If the major part of the reading material that falls in the fields of history, civics, geography, hygiene, and nature study were assigned to these subjects, it is clear that the time for reading could be materially reduced and still more selections of a literary nature than now could be read. This reduction in time would also help to make room for such subjects as nature study and civics.

Some of the texts now read in the upper grades are clearly too difficult for the grades to which they are assigned. Examples are Hawthorne's "The Story of Achilles," assigned to 6B, and Mowry's "First Steps in the History of England," assigned to 7B. Such texts should either be assigned to higher grades or be displaced.

The basic reading material, or some of it, may very properly offer a fair amount of difficulty, but most, if not all, of the supplementary material should be chosen for rapid reading. It is this type of reading that brings the pupil into the spirit of the selection, that gives him the swing of it, and is therefore most likely to develop a love for the art.

The 17 classes in reading that were observed in the upper grades were taught with widely varying degrees of merit. Approximately one-fourth of the teachers get satisfactory classroom results. They direct attention to the heart of the selections, develop the setting, and then follow the story or theme in a vital manner. Their pupils are interested and read with good expression. Yet even these teachers restrict their work too much to the traditional study-and-recitation type. Little reading for the joy of it, reading that is relatively free and spontaneous, appears to be done in connection with the schools.

In the hands of approximately one-third of the teachers in the upper grades the classroom results in reading are not satisfactory. These teachers usually have their pupils stand at their seats and read mechanically to the teacher; they appear to feel little or no interest in the selections themselves and they fail to cause their pupils to feel any;

they spend little or no time in bringing out the thought or setting, and most of the criticisms they offer pertain to the pronunciation of words and the observation of punctuation marks. A few of these teachers let their pupils stumble along one after another with practically no suggestions whatever, and they assign the advance lessons by pages without even directing attention to the difficult words that will be met.

Perfunctory results such as these can be remedied only by the vitalization of the teacher's own attitude. The teacher must realize what the significance of the selection read is; he must develop the historical, geographical, or other setting that brings out this significance for the class; he must in the longer selections develop an introductory outline of the theme or story; he must direct the study and discussion along the one central theme, leaving all else to give support; and he must not hesitate, upon occasion, to read choice or difficult portions to the class himself.

In every class observed every member had studied the same selection. This must, of course, be the case when basic classics are studied, but with much of the reading material suited to elementary school pupils it is difficult to maintain interest under this condition. Motive on the part of the reader and variety and interest for the class may be brought in by letting each pupil occasionally prepare a different selection for oral reading. Such selections may be taken from newspapers, magazines, library books, and supplementary readers. If a selection is too long for the time allotment of one pupil, let two or more parcel it out among themselves.

Little, if any, attention is given to the development of facility in silent reading. This is the type of reading most used in life, and it should therefore receive attention in school. The slow but necessary motor habits of pronunciation involved in oral reading are not needed in silent reading, yet, if all the emphasis is placed on oral reading, these habits are likely to become so indelibly associated with the reading process that they will in a measure impede silent reading. What is needed is a parallel set of habits for silent reading. The development of these habits should receive attention all through the elementary school.

In the upper grades about two-fifths of the reading time may well be given over to relatively free silent reading. Let the children bring or choose the books they are interested in and let them read primarily for their own satisfaction. It is through such free silent reading, interspersed with periods for discussion and with more formal work, that reading becomes easy and that a taste for it is developed.

Something like this has already been attempted in the Garfield School, where only the first four grade are represented. A vacant room is provided with chairs and a long table plenteously supplied with books and children's papers. To this room the children repair with evident enjoyment at recess and at noon whenever the weather does not permit outdoor play. This is essentially a school library or reading room, and it would be even more in place for the grades above the fourth. A suggestive list of books for such a library, as well as for supplementary reading, may be found in "The Sixteenth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education," pages 33–59.[1]

RECOMMENDATIONS.

1. More of the spirit of delight should be introduced into the reading classes.
2. Practice in rapid silent reading should be given and more opportunity for relatively free silent reading should be provided.
3. Much of the material now assigned to reading should be transferred to other subjects.
4. Selections too difficult for their grades should be reassigned or displaced.

Time given to language.

Grades.	Elyria.	Fifty cities.	Cleveland.
	Per cent.	*Per cent.*	*Per cent.*
1	7.5	8.6	10.9
2	6.0	8.7	10.8
3	8.3	10.3	9.0
4	10.0	10.9	11.8
5	12.1	12.0	13.6
6	17.0	12.2	13.6
7	15.8	13.7	14.3
8	20.8	14.1	14.3
Average	12.2	11.4	12.3

The provisions of the course of study in language for the four upper grades are as follows:

Grade 5 B.—Parts of speech, forms of nouns, qualifying words, degrees of comparison. Written and oral exercises suggested in the reader.

Grades 5 A and 6 B.—"Speaking and Writing No. III" is used as a text, and emphasis is given to argumentation, description, relation of stories, topics about Lincoln, and debates.

Grades 6 A–8 A, inclusive.—"The Mother Tongue, No. II," is parceled out by pages and topics to the five divisions, and formal grammar is systematically studied. Oral and written exercises are called for. Although not mentioned in the course of study, at least one written composition a month is desired.

Sixteen lessons in language and grammar were observed in the four upper grades. Seven of these were grades 5 B to 6 B, and nine in grades 6 A to 8 A. All of the latter were on formal grammar, and the others were based on "Speaking and Writing," the prescribed text. In no case was language or composition directly correlated with the other work of the school. In fact, language study in the upper grades of Elyria is made a thing apart.

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[1] Public School Publishing Co., Bloomington, Ill., 1917.

Viewed as a formal study, grammar is on the whole well taught. The pupils participate in the recitations, they ferret out the minute subdivisions of the various parts of speech, and they analyze and diagram highly complicated sentences. But the wisdom of devoting two and one-half years, the language time in divisions 6 A to 8 A, to formal grammar, and some of the time in the fifth grade to grammar more informally studied, may be seriously questioned.

The best thought of the present inclines to the idea that language study, as such, need be given but little separate time—not more than one or two periods a week—and that language and composition receive emphasis as part and parcel of all the other work of the school. Oral expression is of necessity involved in all the situations of the school, and many of the topics studied in geography, history, civics, current topics, nature study, and literature should be written up in the interest of mere pedagogical completeness. The more spontaneous forms of composition, such as stories and letters, should grow out of reading, literature, and preparation for Thanksgiving, Christmas, and other special days. This provides an abundance of language topics, places the attention on the content, where it belongs, and gives language the interconnections and continual emphasis that it inherently requires.

Easy and correct language control is acquired through frequent and correct language use, and then only on the condition of having something to say. Habit and not knowledge is the immediate guide rail of right construction, especially with children. Grammatical and rhetorical knowledge function in expression only indirectly and reflectively, and then with children almost solely through adult assistance. It is seldom that even an eighth-grade child will correct what he has written on the basis of his grammatical knowledge. This is the achievement of the extensively trained adult and is still exceptional with high-school and college students.

This relation of language and grammar indicates the place that grammatical and rhetorical study should have in the elementary school. This study should be treated as the reflective support of correct expression and should be brought in only when it is clearly needed and when the pupils themselves may be led to feel this need. It is needed in developing control over such topics as capitalization, punctuation, number, agreement, inflection, sentence structure, paragraphing, and the correction of habitual errors. The rationalization of these topics is for most pupils helpful and satisfying, but the facts and principles needed must be brought in again and again, for not until the correct forms become habitual has the desired end been achieved.

Giving grammar a separate place on the daily program before the eighth grade can do little, if any, good, consumes valuable time, and is likely to develop a dislike for the subject. By the time the eighth grade is reached a sufficient number of language facts and principles may have been gained to make a systematization through the specific study of grammar significant. But even here the study should face in the direction of use rather than theoretic knowledge, and should serve as an interpretation of expression. It should be correlated not only with the written work done by the pupils, but also with reading, history, and the like.

The conclusion that formal grammar has little or no effect upon the clearness and correctness of writing is borne out by the composition work of the children in Elyria. Compositions were collected from 17 classes, 9 of which were in the seventh and eighth grades. Composition scales are as yet not sufficiently specific to make possible a comparable ranking of these compositions; neither are standards available for the seventh and eighth grades with which these rankings might be compared. A study of the compositions, however, reveals all the faults, both in variety and frequency, that are usually found in children's writing. Sentence structure is often poor; clauses are strung together without proper connections; verbs are sometimes omitted; quotation marks and the sign of the possessive are frequently omitted; the rules of capitalization are occasionally ignored; and the principles of punctuation are not applied. Occasionally a whole composition is written as one paragraph, and even as one sentence. *Done* is used for *did*, *seen* for *saw*, a plural subject is followed by a singular verb, and the tense of verbs is varied within the same sentence or the same paragraph. *Different* is followed by *than* about as often as by *from*, and such words as *person*, *pupil*, *teacher*, *one*, and *everybody* are almost invariably followed by a plural, instead of the masculine pronoun. Pupils and many of the teachers alike seem to be ignorant of the fact that in English the masculine serves as the common gender pronoun. Such expressions as "A person should do *their* best"; "If you see some one doing something unkind, what is the best way to persuade *them* to be kind?" and "Let some one read it who thinks *they* can do it well," are the rule rather than the exception.

Whether or not the percentage of grammatical and rhetorical errors made by the Elyria children is greater or less than that made by children elsewhere it is impossible to say, but that many errors persist in spite of the extensive and intensive study of formal grammar is clear. It also seems clear that the way to correct these errors is not by the study of formal grammar, as such, but by never ceasing to correct the mistakes that are made. In making these corrections the overt study and application of language facts and principles may often be of assistance, but it is habit rather than knowledge that serves as the main guide of expression.

In the 5A and 6B divisions lessons were observed on such topics as Daniel Webster and the woodchuck, Mercury and the woodsman, The cruelty of a knight to his faithful horse, The schoolmaster persuading the farmers not to kill the birds, A frog pleading with boys not to throw stones into the pond, and a fable from Aesop. The pupils discussed these topics, read them from the text, acted them out with and without the aid of the text, and wrote compositions upon them. The reading was good as reading, but the acting was usually so simple and artificial that it was embarrassing to the pupils, who, it should be remembered, were in the fifth and sixth grades. The compositions observed were of an argumentative nature. They aimed to persuade a person not to be cruel to a faithful horse, farmers not to shoot the birds, and boys not to kill the frogs. Most of the pupils were interested in writing these compositions and for fifth and sixth grade children they did well with them. But why not dispense with the text, at least in the hands of the pupils, and let the composition grow out of topics of real concern, such as indiscriminate snowballing, keeping the snow and ice off the sidewalks, and keeping backyards in order? In the spring such topics as killing frogs, robbing birds' nests, walking across lawns, and picking other people's flowers might well be taken up for discussion and composition.

When the language work is correlated with the other work of the school and with the interests of the community, State, and Nation, no special language text is needed in the hands of the pupils. Such texts always tend to make the work unreal and formal, to make language a thing apart, and to consume a disproportionate amount of time. They also tend to take the zest out of the work for the eighth grade, where a text is needed if formal grammar is taken up. The teacher, of course, should have a variety of texts for suggestive purposes.

SPELLING.

The following table gives the percentage of spelling time in Elyria, Cleveland, and 50 other cities. While Elyria sets no specific time apart for spelling in the first grade, the average for the eight grades is still above that of Cleveland and the 50 cities.

Time given to spelling.

Grades.	Elyria.	Cleveland.	Fifty cities.
	Per cent.	*Per cent.*	*Per cent.*
1	0.0	6.5	6.3
2	11.5	7.2	7.3
3	10.6	9.0	8.0
4	10.6	7.1	6.9
5	7.0	5.7	6.3
6	7.4	5.4	5.9
7	8.8	5.4	5.3
8	5.5	5.4	5.1
Average	7.7	6.5	6.4

Spelling was tested in all the grades above the first with the lists of words used in the Cleveland survey.[1] These lists contain 20 words each and have been selected from the Ayres spelling scale. This scale is made up of the 1,000 words most frequently used in correspondence, newspapers, and books. The words are arranged by groups in their order of difficulty as determined by extensive tests in 84 different cities.

On the words used in Elyria the children in these 84 cities made average scores of 73 per cent correct. These scores were the same for each grade and applied to those children that had completed one-half of the work of the grades. As the tests in Elyria were given within 10 days of the beginning of the second semester's work, these scores are directly comparable with those made by the A classes in Elyria. These classes began the work of their grades in September, and had therefore completed one-half of it. The average scores for the A classes are given in the following table:

Spelling scores.

Arranged for the A classes.

Schools.	Grades.						
	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Franklin		47	69	63	74	82	73
Garford	94	92	92				
Gates	30	62	57	71	68	57	63
Hamilton		63	67	68	79	80	
Jefferson		66		68	71	73	63
McKinley	35	59	65	74	84	70	68
Ridge	31	62	50	68	73		
Average	48	64	67	69	75	72	67
Ayres	73	73	73	73	73	73	73

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[1] Judd, Charles Hubbard. "Measuring the Work of the Schools," p. 239, Cleveland Education Survey, 1916.

Only 12 of the 38 A classes tested made scores of 73 per cent or over, while 26 made scores below 73 per cent. An exceptionally wide variation is manifest. While 4 classes made scores above 85 per cent, 8 classes fell below 60 per cent. On the average only one group of classes, the 6 A classes, exceeded the 73 per cent standard. and these exceeded it by only two points. Why this relatively poor showing?

It can not be assumed that the children in Elyria are inherently poorer spellers than those in other cities; neither can the poor showing be laid to an insufficient amount of time devoted to spelling. On the average 7.7 per cent of the recitation time in Elyria is devoted to spelling, as against 6.5 per cent in Cleveland and 6.4 per cent in 50 other cities. Neither does it seem clear that the poor showing can be laid to poor teaching. The members of the survey commission observed the teaching of 40 spelling lessons, and these appeared on the whole to be well taught. The words studied were within the range of comprehension of the pupils, their meanings were brought out, they were used in sentences, they were divided into syllables, they were often pronounced and spelled in concert, the results in the final spelling were usually excellent, and the teachers follow the practice of reviewing the more troublesome words at the end of the week.

The main cause for the poor showing in spelling appears to be in the method of selecting the words for study. No spelling books or spelling lists are used, the words studied being selected from the other school subjects or from newspapers, as the teacher may see fit. This is excellent as a supplementary means of word selection, but as the primary means it is too haphazard; it is likely to let too many common words slip through without adequate study.

That poor word selection is the primary cause of the poor showing in spelling was corroborated by the testimony of the teachers and by the spelling in the composition papers. When the spelling lists were handed out a number of the teachers predicted that their results would be poor, for, said they, "Our children haven't studied these words." Most of the misspelling in the composition papers were of such words as *where*, *there*, *goal*, *always*, and *receive*.

To insure a more systematic word selection it is recommended that Elyria adopt either a good series of spelling books or a word list, such as that published by Pryor in the Sixteenth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. (Bloomington, Ill., 1917.)

PENMANSHIP.

The following table shows the time given to penmanship in Elyria as compared with other cities:

Time given to penmanship.

Grades.	Elyria.	Cleveland.	Fifty cities.
	Per cent.	*Per cent.*	*Per cent.*
1	5.8	6.5	6.7
2	5.0	7.2	6.7
3	5.8	7.2	5.7
4	4.9	7.2	5.5
5	4.4	6.4	5.1
6	4.0	5.4	4.8
7	4.6	5.4	3.9
8	3.5	3.6	3.7
Average	4.7	6.1	5.1

UPPER GRADES.

Specimens of penmanship were obtained from all the pupils above the fourth grade. The pupils were asked to write with pen and ink a well-known sentence, such as "Mary had a little lamb." The sentence was placed upon the board and the pupils were allowed precisely two minutes in which to write it over and over. The results obtained are summarized in the two following tables:

Speed of penmanship. (Median number of letters per minute.)

Schools.	Grade.							
	5		6		7		8	
	B	A	B	A	B	A	B	A
Franklin	59	74	90	59	72	62	62	72
Gates	......	59	70	72	77	81	78	70
Jefferson	43	42	67	73	99	102	65	70
McKinley	......	56	63	85	85	76	......	79
Ridge	54	49	50	56	......	......	......	......
Elyria	55		69		68		73	
Cleveland	58		71		77		81	
Fifty-six cities[1]	59		63		68		73	

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[1] Frank N. Freeman, "Handwriting." In the Sixteenth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, p. 61. Bloomington, Ill., 1917.

Quality of penmanship.

(Thorndike scale, median scores.)

Schools.	Grade.							
	5		6		7		8	
	B	A	B	A	B	A	B	A
Franklin	9	9	10	9	11	11	11	11
Gates	......	10	9	10	10	11	11	11
Jefferson	9	10	10	10	9	10	11	10
McKinley	......	9	9	10	11	11	......	12
Ridge	10	10	11	10	......	......	......	......
Elyria	9.5		10.0		11.0		11.0	
Butte	8.9		11.6		11.2		12.1	

The table on page 157 gives the median number of letters written per minute for each half grade of the different schools, and the table on page 158 in a corresponding manner gives the median scores for quality in terms of the Thorndike scale.

The Thorndike scale is made up of samples of handwriting differing in quality by equal steps from zero to 18. Samples 9 to 11 may be considered fair, 12 to 14 good, and 15 to 18 excellent.

A comparison of the Elyria scores in speed with those of Cleveland and 56 other cities (p. 157) and in quality with those of Butte (p. 158) indicates that in penmanship the children in Elyria are doing about what the children in other cities are doing. There is no question in respect to the comparability of the scores in speed, but the same assurance can not be expressed in respect to the scores in quality. In Butte "about 80 teachers scored the papers under the direction of a member of the survey commission,"[1] while in Elyria one member of the survey commission did the scoring. He was assisted by the teachers in two of the buildings, but found so much inconsistency that he felt compelled to go over most of the papers again.

The fact that Elyria has, and for many years has had, an efficient teacher of penmanship would have led one to expect that the city would take rank above the median in this subject. In passing judgment, however, it should be remembered that this teacher has time to give only one lesson in two weeks in each room. This manifestly leaves the teaching of penmanship to the room teachers after all, who are nevertheless relieved of much of the responsibility for results. These teachers were not observed to insist upon the arm movement and good form outside of the writing lesson, and as a consequence only a small proportion of the pupils are mastering the arm movement.

With so many other urgent needs in the schools unsatisfied, it is recommended that the teacher of penmanship be dropped; that a standard system of penmanship be adopted; that manuals setting forth this system be placed into the hands of the teachers; and that the classroom teachers be held responsible for results through the general supervision.

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[1] Report of a survey of the school system of Butte, Mont., p. 79.

GEOGRAPHY.

Geography as a distinct study is begun in the fourth grade. It is given a daily period in the fourth, fifth, and sixth grades, and shares the time with history in the seventh grade. Home geography in the form of supplementary reading is taken up in the third grade.

Time given to geography.

Grades.	Elyria.	Cleveland.	Fifty cities.
	Per cent.	*Per cent.*	*Per cent.*
1	0.0	0.0	1.8
2	.0	.0	.8
3	.0	3.2	5.4
4	15.3	11.4	8.5
5	15.5	14.3	11.2
6	17.6	14.3	11.0
7	8.1	6.4	9.9
8	.0	6.4	7.6
Averages	7.1	7.2	7.1

From the preceding table it appears that the amount of time given to geography corresponds precisely to the average time given to the subject in 50 other cities. If, however, the time given to home geography in the third grade and to geographical readers in the fifth and seventh grades were counted here instead of in reading the average would be raised from 7.1 per cent to about 8.5.

Geography is usually discontinued in the middle of the seventh grade, where it gives way to history, and, save as commercial geography in the third year of the commercial course, it is not included in the curriculum of the high school. The wisdom of this may be questioned. This subject is so fundamental in importance that it might well be allowed to share the time with history throughout the eighth, ninth, and tenth grades.

But if a wider range of geographical study is to be justified, the teaching of the subject must be vitalized. The texts used are satisfactory, but the work is based too exclusively upon them. The few geographical readers that are used are connected with reading and not with geography. This leaves only the relatively meager texts as a basis for the work. Maps and globes are usually before the class, but they are seldom referred to; pictures are used sparingly, and specimens very rarely. Sets of Tiffany's "Nature cabinet" were seen in two of the buildings, but only one teacher was seen to make use of one. The fact that these cabinets were not even mentioned in the teaching material listed by the principal appears to indicate the place that they hold in the minds of the teachers.

All the seventh grade teachers were teaching the mathematical or astronomical phases of geography, but none was heard to direct the attention of the children to the visible planets, the brighter stars, or the conspicuous constellations. Children delight in locating these objects in the heavens, and the observation of their motions forms the only direct basis for appreciating the motions of the earth. The knowledge gained, moreover, comprises that minimum astronomical heritage that should be considered the right of every child. If the teachers themselves do not now have this knowledge, they could easily gain it while teaching it by means of a manual like Bowen's "Astronomy by Observation."[1]

Should it seem inadvisable to give the primary presentation of these astronomical topics in connection with geography, this could be done as nature study during the winter months in the fifth or sixth grades, and the knowledge could then be used in the geography classes. Two periods a week for four or five months would be ample. Interesting and valuable language material would be found in the associated myths and legends.

While it is true in general that the work in geography lacks realness and vitality, it should not be inferred that no good work was observed on the subject. A few of the teachers supplement their work well with pictures, specimens, and the making of maps in relief, and a majority of them enlist the thought responses of the pupils in tracing geographical relationships without, however, making the work sufficiently realistic. Those whose work is poor in nearly all respects are again in the minority.

Recommendations.

1. The work on home geography in the third grade should be classed with geography and be taught in relation to the pupils' environment through exercises and constant first-hand observation.
2. A series of geographical readers should supplement the formal texts.
3. Geographical magazines and articles of geographical topics from other sources should be placed in the hands of the older pupils.
4. Pictures and specimens of geographical interest should be given a position coequal with globes and maps, and all should be used more abundantly.
5. The visible planets, about a dozen of the brighter stars, and the chief constellations should be located and their movements observed in correlation with general or mathematical geography.[2]

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[1] American Book Co., 1886.

[2] For a detailed discussion of methods in geography, compare the San Francisco Survey (Bulletin of the Bureau of Education, 1917, No. 46).

ARITHMETIC.

The following table shows the percentage of time given to arithmetic in Elyria as compared with other cities:

Time given to arithmetic.

Grades.	Elyria.	Cleveland.	Fifty cities.
	Per cent.	*Per cent.*	*Per cent.*
1	21.1	5.2	6.9
2	19.2	15.5	10.7
3	21.0	16.3	14.4
4	20.0	17.2	15.4
5	20.5	17.1	14.9
6	20.7	17.5	15.0
7	20.5	16.1	14.4
8	21.1	17.9	14.1
Average	20.5	15.4	13.2

UPPER GRADES.

The ability of the pupils in addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division was tested by the Woody tests, series B,[1] and the ability in reasoning by the Stone tests in reasoning.[2]

The Woody tests are composed of problems arranged in an ascending order of difficulty for each of the four fundamental operations, as exemplified by the following test for subtraction:

Subtraction scale.

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
8	2	11	13	78	16
5	1	7	8	37	9

(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)
50	393	567482	2¾—1=	8⅞
25	178	106493		5¾

(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)
27	5 yds. 1 ft. 4 in.		
12⅝	2 yds. 2 ft. 8 in.	7.3—3.00081=	3⅞—1⅝=

Ten minutes is allowed for the solution of each set of problems, and the scores are determined by counting the number of problems solved correctly. The number of problems, which represent the possible scores, in each set are: Addition, 19; subtraction, 15; multiplication, 20; division, 15.

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[1] Clifford Woody, "Measurements of Some Achievements in Arithmetic." Teachers' College, Columbia University, New York City, 1916.

[2] Cliff W. Stone, "Arithmetical Abilities." Teachers' College, Columbia University, New York City, 1908.

As 10 minutes is more time than most of the pupils need for solving all the problems in each set for which they are prepared, the tests do not test speed, but accuracy only.

The results from the Woody tests are summarized in the tables on p. 163. The scores are given in medians instead of averages for the different grades or half grades of the various schools. The median is the middle score, and is found by arranging the scores under consideration in an ascending series and then counting in from either end to the middle. It usually corresponds very closely to the average, is found more quickly, and in studies like this is now very frequently used.

Woody tests.

Median scores by buildings and grades.

ADDITION.

Schools.	Grade 2.		Grade 3.		Grade 4.		Grade 5.		Grade 6.		Grade 7.		Grade 8.	
	B	A	B	A	B	A	B	A	B	A	B	A	B	A
Franklin	....	....	6.50	9.00	11.00	12.00	13.70	14.00	14.50	16.00	15.75	15.80	15.70	17.00
Garford	....	7.00	9.00	11.00	10.50	14.00	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Gates	....	6.00	9.00	10.00	11.00	13.00	11.00	14.00	13.00	16.00	16.00	16.00	15.00	16.00
Hamilton	6.00	6.00	....	10.00	11.00	....	13.50	16.00	15.00	17.00	16.00	16.50	....	....
Jefferson	....	7.00	....	....	13.00	13.00	13.00	12.50	....	....	....	....	....	....
McKinley	6.00	5.50	7.00	10.30	11.00	13.50	13.00	14.00	14.00	14.00	15.00	16.00	....	17.00
Ridge	....	6.00	10.00	10.00	11.00	13.00	13.00	15.00	14.00	14.50	....	....	....	....

SUBTRACTION.

Schools.	Grade 2.		Grade 3.		Grade 4.		Grade 5.		Grade 6.		Grade 7.		Grade 8.	
	B	A	B	A	B	A	B	A	B	A	B	A	B	A
Franklin	....	....	6.00	7.00	8.00	9.00	10.70	12.00	12.00	13.25	12.83	13.63	14.10	14.35
Garford	....	7.00	7.00	6.50	8.00	10.00	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Gates	....	5.00	5.00	5.00	7.00	9.00	10.00	9.50	11.50	12.50	11.50	13.00	14.00	14.00
Hamilton	4.50	5.00	....	8.00	8.00	....	11.50	12.00	12.00	13.00	13.00	13.50	....	....
Jefferson	....	6.00	....	....	10.00	10.00	11.00	9.50	....	....	....	....	....	....
McKinley	3.00	5.00	6.00	8.00	7.50	9.00	10.00	12.00	13.00	13.00	13.00	13.00	....	14.00
Ridge	....	5.00	6.50	8.00	7.00	9.00	9.00	10.50	12.00	13.00	....	....	....	....

MULTIPLICATION.

Schools.	Grade 2.		Grade 3.		Grade 4.		Grade 5.		Grade 6.		Grade 7.		Grade 8.	
	B	A	B	A	B	A	B	A	B	A	B	A	B	A
Franklin	....	....	5.00	6.00	9.00	9.00	9.80	10.00	12.00	16.00	16.67	16.75	17.00	18.00
Garford	....	....	....	6.00	9.00	10.00	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Gates	....	4.00	5.00	6.00	7.00	10.00	9.00	10.00	12.50	16.00	15.00	15.00	15.00	17.50
Hamilton	....	....	....	8.00	10.00	....	11.50	14.00	12.00	16.00	16.00	16.50	....	....
Jefferson	....	4.00	....	....	11.00	11.00	11.00	10.00	....	....	....	....	....	....
McKinley	....	....	5.00	7.00	9.00	10.00	10.00	11.00	14.00	15.00	15.00	16.00	....	18.00
Ridge	....	....	6.00	7.00	9.00	9.00	10.00	11.00	15.00	14.50	....	....	....	....

DIVISION.

Schools.	Grade 2.		Grade 3.		Grade 4.		Grade 5.		Grade 6.		Grade 7.		Grade 8.	
	B	A	B	A	B	A	B	A	B	A	B	A	B	A
Franklin	....	....	3.00	5.00	6.00	7.70	7.50	9.00	10.00	11.00	11.25	11.50	11.75	13.00
Garford	....	....	....	5.70	7.00	10.00	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Gates	....	2.00	4.00	5.00	6.00	8.00	8.00	8.00	9.00	10.00	11.00	11.50	12.00	12.00
Hamilton	....	....	....	6.00	8.00	....	10.00	10.00	10.00	11.00	12.00	12.50	....	....
Jefferson	....	4.00	....	....	9.00	8.00	7.80	7.00	....	....	....	....	....	....
McKinley	....	....	4.00	5.00	6.50	8.00	8.00	9.00	11.00	10.00	10.50	11.00	....	13.00
Ridge	....	....	3.50	6.50	4.00	6.00	6.00	6.00	11.00	10.00	....	....	....	....

Elyria scores compared with standard scores given by Woody.

Grades	Addition.		Subtraction.		Multiplication.		Division.	
	Elyria.	Woody.	Elyria.	Woody.	Elyria.	Woody.	Elyria.	Woody.
2	6.0	4.5	5.0	3.0	4.0	....	3.0	....
3	10.0	9.0	6.5	6.0	6.0	3.5	5.0	3.0
4	12.8	11.0	9.0	8.0	9.0	7.0	7.7	5.0
5	13.6	14.0	10.6	10.0	10.0	11.0	8.0	7.0
6	14.5	16.0	12.7	12.0	14.7	15.0	10.0	10.0
7	16.0	18.0	13.0	13.0	16.0	17.0	11.2	13.0
8	16.0	18.5	14.0	14.5	17.5	18.0	12.0	14.0

An inspection of the table on page 163 reveals the fact that there are occasionally wide variations between the scores for the different buildings. For example, the scores for the 5A classes vary from 12.5 to 16 in addition, from 9 to 12 in subtraction, from 10 to 14 in multiplication, and from 6 to 10 in division. As these variations do not occur with any uniformity between schools, they may be of little significance; yet they set a problem that the supervisors and teachers may find well worth considering.

Another fact revealed by this table is a frequent lack of steady progress from grade to grade. Beginning with 4B and ending with 6A, the scores for the Gates School in addition are: 11, 13, 11, 14, 13, and 16. Similar irregularities are found in the other schools. This would indicate that the development of skill in the fundamentals does not receive sufficient specific attention.

Data pointing in the same direction are exhibited in the table on page 164. In this table the Elyria scores are set alongside of the standard scores given by Woody. In grades two, three, and four the Elyria scores are better than the standard scores; in grades five and six they are approximately equal to them; and in grades seven and eight they are poorer.

The main reasons why the good scores in the primary grades do not continue through the grades appear to be: The basic combinations are not sufficiently automatic; complicated thought problems are introduced prematurely; and not sufficient time is given to accurate and rapid work in the fundamental processes in the intermediate and upper grades. It was noted, for example, that many pupils in the eighth grade still added by tapping or by counting in a whisper.

Ability in reasoning problems was tested by the Stone test in reasoning, which follow:

ARITHMETIC; REASONING.

Solve as many of the following problems as you have time for; work them in order as numbered:

Credit.

1. If you buy 2 tablets at 7 cents each and a book for 65 cents, how much change should you receive from a $2 bill? 1
2. John sold 4 Saturday Evening Posts at 5 cents each. He kept half the money and with the other half he bought Sunday papers at 2 cents each. How many did he buy? 1
3. If James had four times as much money as George, he would have $16. How much money has George? 1
4. How many pencils can you buy for 50 cents at the rate of 2 for 5 cents? 1
5. The uniforms of a baseball nine cost $2.50 each. The shoes cost $2 a pair. What was the total cost of uniforms and shoes for the nine? 1
6. In the school of a certain city there are 2,200 pupils; one-half are in the primary grades, one-fourth in the grammar grades, one-eighth in the high school, and the rest in the night school. How many pupils are in the night school? 1.4
7. If 3½ tons of coal cost $21, what will 5½ tons cost? 1.2
8. A newsdealer bought some magazines for $1. He sold them for $1.20, gaining 5 cents on each magazine. How many magazines were there?
9. A girl spent one-eighth of her money for car fare, and three times as much for clothes. Half of what she had left was 80 cents. How much money did she have at first? 2.0
10. Two girls receive $2.10 for making buttonholes. One makes 42, the other 28. How shall they divide the money? 2.0
11. Mr. Brown paid one-third of the cost of a building; Mr. Johnson paid half the cost. Mr. Johnson received $500 more annual rent than Mr. Brown. How much did each receive? 2.0
12. A freight train left Albany for New York at 6 o'clock. An express left on the same track at 8 o'clock. It went at the rate of 40 miles an hour. At what time of day will it overtake the freight train if the freight train stops after it has gone 56 miles? 2.0

These tests were given in the grades above the fourth in the Franklin, Gates, McKinley, and Ridge schools. The results are summarized in the two following tables:

Stone test in reasoning—Average scores by buildings.

Schools.	Grades.							
	5B	5A	6B	6A	7B	7A	8B	8A
Franklin	3.16	4.06	3.44	5.44	6.53	6.41	7.84	7.77
Gates		3.19	3.83	5.13	4.11	5.40	6.70	8.90
McKinley		3.92	5.56	6.40	5.50	6.68		9.00
Ridge	1.70	2.47	3.83	4.63				
Averages	2.34	3.48	4.16	5.43	5.55	6.26	7.62	8.26

Stone test in reasoning—Comparative scores.

Cities.	Grades.			
	5	6	7	8
Butte, Mont	2.20	3.90	5.80	7.70
Springfield, Ill		5.08		
Elyria, A and B divisions	2.91	4.95	5.98	8.05
Elyria, A division	3.48	5.43	6.26	8.26
Stone (median city)		5.51		

In scoring the papers credits were given as indicated after each problem on page 165, except that when a problem was reasoned correctly but through a mechanical error a wrong answer was obtained, a uniform credit of 1 was given.

The data for the Stone tests were collected from sixth-grade classes, some of which were in the first half of the school year and some in the second half. The average scores from 26 systems tested by Stone varied from 3.56 to 9.14. The Elyria score that may be most fairly compared with these scores, is that from the 6A classes, which had just finished the first half of the school year. This score (5.43) ranks just below the median in Stone's table, there being 12 lower and 14 higher scores. This would indicate that the result achieved in reasoning problems in Elyria is about average. Elyria ranks considerably above both Butte, Mont., and Springfield, Ill. The Butte score (3.90) is the average for the 6B and 6A divisions, while that from Springfield (5.08) is for 6A, taken, however, near the end of the school year.

In view of the time given to arithmetic in Elyria one might expect that the scores would be better. Why are they not better?

(1) The fact that complicated reasoning problems are introduced too early is no doubt one cause. This tends to deaden the sense for thought relations. (2) Sufficient attention is not given to developing clear conceptions, thoughtfully understood, of how to solve problems, the lion's share of attention being given to getting the answer. Only one assignment was seen over which the teacher had written "Study how to solve." (3) The basic principles of handling common and decimal fractions and of percentage appear not to be brought out in sufficient relief and appear not to be continually reviewed and recognized in application. The pupils appear not to be led to become clearly aware of the fact that arithmetic, outside of the fundamental operations, common and decimal fractions, and percentage, contains nothing new of a mathematical nature, and that even these mathematical phases are closely interrelated. (4) Finally, the work in the applied phases of arithmetic lacks in vital relationship to reality; it is bookish, and so falls short in thought-provoking motive. All the sixth-grade teachers, for example, were teaching tables

of measures, but only one was seen to let the pupils measure something. In the main the pupils are not getting concrete notions of yard, rod, acre, and the like. In two of the schools the observer asked about how many acres the school yard contained, but none of the pupils could even give an estimate. The 8B classes were studying stocks and bonds, and while one teacher had present a stock certificate which was pinned to the bulletin board, none made use of the stock quotations in the daily papers or related the subject to the commercial interests of the city or Nation in any way.

RECOMMENDATIONS.

1. The time given to arithmetic, especially in the lower grades, is excessive and should be reduced.
2. The work should be made more concrete and should be more intimately related to the children's own experiences, both in and out of school. The children should learn to weigh and measure, and topics like interest and stocks and bonds should be used to interpret business practices.
3. The aim should be to make automatic the basic combinations in addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division, and develop confidence and accuracy in the use of common and decimal fractions.
4. Bring into relief the common principles running through the applied phases of arithmetic and place comprehension above the use of formulas.
5. Have study lessons on "how to solve," and avoid introducing complicated thought problems prematurely.

SUGGESTIONS FOR THE IMPROVEMENT OF INSTRUCTION.

The foregoing examination of the content and method of instruction in the elementary schools of Elyria indicates that the most general fault that may be found is the fault of verbalism. Teaching is done too much on the basis of words and not enough on the basis of reality. Instead of interlocking with life at every point, of interpreting the world to the child and giving him a meaningful and systematic conception of it, the school moves too much in a groove by itself. Textbooks are looked upon more as an end than a means.

While the teachers as a class possess a high grade of native ability, and while, through their refinement and courtesy, they have a wholesome and elevating influence on the spirit and attitude of their pupils, in respect to the subjects that they are teaching, they lack vision. They face schoolward rather than lifeward, and too often go through their lessons as so many routine tasks to be completed. That the exercises of the school receive their sanction for the requirements of life and that effective instruction can go on only on the basis of interesting and meaningful activity on the part of the children, they often forget. As a consequence they attack reading, composition, spelling, arithmetic, geography, etc., too much as set and formal tasks and not enough through the creation of situations that elicit the use and study of these subjects through the satisfaction of needs. Teachers are interpreters of life, and only by leading their pupils actively into an ever-widening control over the content and processes of life and an appreciative understanding of these can they initiate them into a meaningful mastery of the school arts. Any other basis of instruction centers the attention primarily upon forms and symbols and leads to the fault of verbalism.

The cause of verbalism in teaching is often said to be the prominence of books in the schoolroom. This is true only in a superficial sense, for the prominence of books is in itself only a symptom of deeper causes that lie in the nature of the educative process itself.

The life of the child and the life of the adult are in some respects far apart. The achievements of the race in science, art, skill, and ideals, which are the very foundation of adult activity, are not transmitted to the child through the channel of heredity, but must be mastered by him anew.

The agency that has evolved to assist the child in mastering these achievements is the school. It is the function of the school to lead the child into a rounded and meaningful mastery over the life about him. But in performing this function the school is beset with a number of obstacles. These are inherent, and all tend to bring about empty and formal results. They are (1) the isolation of the school; (2) the symbolic nature of much of our subject matter; (3) the confinement of the child; and (4) the limitations of the teacher.

In order that the school adequately may supplement the give-and-take experiences of life and transmit the achievements in science and art, it must be organized into a separate institution and housed in its own building. This places the school largely outside of the very reality over which it should confer comprehension and mastery. Yet this isolation is in a measure unavoidable.

The symbolic nature of subject matter is also largely unavoidable. The achievements of the race in literature and science and the descriptions of events and places from other times and countries are of necessity preserved in books. These contain the largest one of those elements that the informal experiences of life fail to give.

The isolation of the school and the symbolic nature of subject matter both operate to restrict the activity of the child while learning. The child must of necessity spend much of his time poring over books, and he must do this usually in the presence of others who are likewise engaged and must, therefore, not be disturbed. This tends to eliminate motor experiences, without which basal meanings can not be attained.

The case in respect to the teacher is little better. He is a product of the routine of the schools, and he is usually a person who enjoys this routine for its own sake. Direct experience with the life from which this routine gets its significance he has had but little chance to get, and his knowledge of history, sociology, economics, political science, and educational theory, which might illuminate his work from the theoretical side, is usually very limited. Add to this the fact that he has to teach so many subjects, that he has time to master none, which is certainly the case in the upper grades of the elementary school, and the picture is complete.

This diagnosis makes it clear that the educative process is inherently exposed to verbalism. The obstacles in the way can not be removed once for all, but they must be continually met and overcome.

In the first place, the teacher must realize that the processes of the schoolroom are not sufficient unto themselves, but have as their goal the interpretation of the processes of life. The circle of instruction must not be limited to the schoolroom, but must be expanded to embrace reality. The pupil must be led to see that the problems that engage his attention have their setting in the world and not merely in the book. Geography treats of other people and places with which we are interrelated; history traces the development of the customs and institutions in which we are now living; and reading, writing, spelling, language, and arithmetic are tools that are needed both in and out of school. Education is for life, and must in its processes of acquisition interlock with life.

In teaching of this vital sort, books have an important place, but they must be viewed as means and not as ends. They hold a place in teaching similar to that held by guidebooks in travel. Just as it is the function of guidebooks to interpret places and buildings for the traveler, so it is the function of textbooks to interpret nature, institutions, and processes for the student. Both point beyond themselves to the realities which stimulated their existence. The teacher and the personal guide again occupy similar positions.

For the traveler to sit in his room and rest content with reading his guidebook would be absurd. He means to become directly acquainted with the scenes described in his book, and he means to do this through his own activity. The same two aspects are present in effective teaching. The reality studied must in some way be meaningfully present or represented, and the pupils' own sensory, motor, and reflective activities must be enlisted in becoming acquainted with this reality. What are the means available to teachers for providing these two aspects of this work?

On the side of exhibiting reality the following means appear to be available. They are arranged in their order of nearness to reality:

1. Observation of reality—
    - *a.* Through field trips.
    - *b.* Through field assignments.
    - *c.* Through recall of past experiences.

2. Specimens:
    - *a.* Temporary: Botanical, geological, class experiments, etc.
    - *b.* Permanent: Seeds, minerals, manufactured articles, etc.
3. Models: Mostly geographical and physiological; globes, maps in relief, models of bodily organs, etc.
4. Pictures:
    - *a.* For class use: Motion pictures, slides, wall pictures.
    - *b.* For individual use: Stereoscopic views, photographs, illustrations in books, etc.
5. Maps and diagrams: In geography and other subjects.
6. First-hand descriptions or sources, mostly in history and geography.

These means should be considered as supplementing, not as displacing, the text. The text, aided by the teacher, is the depository that contains the theory that binds the concrete experiences provided for by these means into a unified and meaningful whole. The text, moreover, presents this theory in a rounded and systematic way and in a form adapted to the educational development of the learner.

Field trips, sometimes inappropriately called school excursions, are well known. They may be effectively used in connection with home and physical geography, nature study, civics, local history, and industrial topics, but they consume much time and are difficult to manage. The same ends may often be just as effectively gained through field assignments in which the pupils are held individually responsible for their observations.

Specimens, models, pictures, and maps, as well as scales, measures, and books may all be classed together as teaching material. No matter how resourceful and efficient the teacher may be, he can not work with empty hands. In his own peculiar way he needs his tools, just as the physician, dentist, or artisan needs his. Investments in teaching material should be regarded in the same light as investments in buildings, grounds, and teachers' salaries. Without an adequate supply of this material and the will to use it, especially in the elementary schools, teaching is likely to degenerate into empty form.

The Elyria schools are poorly supplied with teaching material, and the little that is on hand is seldom used. There are not enough maps and globes to supply even all of its upper-grade teachers; sets of dry and liquid measures were reported from only three of the seven buildings; unabridged dictionaries are few in number, and cyclopedias suitable for elementary-school pupils are lacking altogether. Nature cabinets were seen in two of the buildings, but only one of these appeared to be used, and that by only one teacher.

A globe, a set of maps, an encyclopedia, and reference books suitable for the grade should be found in each room above the third or fourth grade, but specimens, such as grains, seed pods, woods, minerals, metals, manufactured articles, curios, classified pictures, and the like, may be gathered in one place for the entire building. This means that in each building a school museum should be developed. The specimens and pictures should be labeled and systematically arranged and a card index of them should be kept. The needed cases and shelves could be made by the manual training department, although some would no doubt have to be bought. Perhaps some of the specimens would also have to be purchased, but in the main they should be gathered by the teachers and pupils with little or no expense. The activity of the pupils especially should be enlisted in gathering them. This would be an interesting and educative experience for them. And as an added incentive the label for each specimen should provide a place for the name of the donor.

Elyria is fortunate in having vacant rooms in which the museums could be kept. The school libraries could be kept in the same rooms. In the future a museum and library room should be definitely provided for in each building, and the supervising officers should see to it that the teachers get into the habit of using the material stored there. Merely to gather and store the material would be of little use, and there seems to be an inherent tendency for many teachers to neglect the use of the concrete.

The initiation of the school museum must rest with the teachers and supervisors, but the necessary expenses should be borne by the school board. In the elementary school, and to a large extent also in the high school, the museum is quite as necessary as the library, and it should be provided for and supported in the same way. The administration of the museum must be worked out by the teachers of each building. Some teacher, usually some one other than the principal, should be placed in charge, and specific provision should be made to enlist the cooperation of a few of the older pupils.[1]

In respect to enlisting the activities of the pupils to a greater extent than is now done the following means are suggested: (1) School credit for home work; (2) school and home gardening; (3) shop and laboratory work; (4) dramatic expression; (5) dramatization; (6) supplementary reports in class; (7) class discussion; (8) composition.

It is now well recognized in educational and psychological literature that the act of learning requires expression as well as impression. It requires the use of feeling, volition, and reaction as well as that of the senses and the intellect. Things, processes, and principles are not known until they have been used.

School credit for home work.—If the device known as school credit for home work is to become more than a mere fad in education, it must be linked with the actual work of the school. Correlated home work should be looked upon as an opportunity for using and applying the knowledge gained in the classroom. It should hold a position in physiology and hygiene, domestic art and science, nature study, agriculture, and stock raising similar to that held by laboratory work in physics and chemistry, and it should be made an integral and required part of the work. Credit in hygiene should be given more on the basis of hygienic living, such as washing and bathing regularly, keeping the teeth and finger nails clean, and sleeping with a window open, than on knowledge acquired. Similarly the home work done in cooking and baking, in sewing and cleaning, and in marketing and shopping should count in domestic art and science. Gardening may be made an integral part in the work of nature study and agriculture.

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[1] Helpful suggestions may be found in Perry's "Problems of the Elementary School," ch. 7.

Shopwork.—Shopwork has an established place in manual training and laboratory work in the high-school sciences. More work of this nature is being introduced into the elementary schools of many cities through the adoption of the platoon system, generally known as the Gary plan.

Dramatic expression and dramatization.—Dramatic expression may occasionally be used to good effect in history, civics, and literature, and with younger children in practically all subjects. It consists in acting out the topic under consideration. Periods in history and scenes in literature may be readily acted out. When the pupils memorize set words and speak them in this acting, the process is usually called dramatization. Both of these means are time-consuming, and so must be used in moderation, but as aids in gaining certain meanings they hold an important place.

Reports on topics supplementing the work of the text may often be used in history, geography, nature study, art, and literature. Cyclopedias and other reference books may here find a continual source of usefulness. Either oral or written, these reports afford a real opportunity for composition. Composition, however, has a value far beyond giving practice in writing. It compels one to think a subject through, to organize it, and to make it one's own. It may well form the capstone in the teaching of basal topics in all the school subjects. Bacon placed the right value upon it when he said that reading maketh the full man, speaking the ready man, and writing the exact man. Class discussion is in itself no insignificant means for enlisting the activity of the pupils in the process of learning. Some of the teachers in Elyria are now using this to good effect, but more rely too much on the question-and-answer method and do too much of the talking themselves. These should learn to lift out the problems and relationships in the lessons in hand and to let the pupils wrestle with them. They should regard themselves more as leaders than masters, guiding the discussion by suggestions and questions but not monopolizing it.

Chapter VIII.

CIVIC EDUCATION.

"Elyria, the 100 per cent city," is the slogan emblazoned at night in electric illumination over the city of Elyria, Ohio, and its railway approaches.

On visiting the "special industrial class for boys" in this city a group was found at the blackboard working at problems in interest. When they had taken their seats the observer said: "Boys, I see you know something about percentage."

"Yes," was the reply.

"Then tell me the meaning of an electric sign that I see from my hotel window every night. Do you know what the sign is?"

"Is it 'Elyria the 100 per cent city?'" one boy questioned.

"That's it; what does it mean?"

"It means a perfect city," was the prompt reply.

"Well, is it true?"

"No!" in emphatic chorus.

"Then why the sign?"

"It means that Elyria ought to be a perfect city," one boy ventured after a pause.

"In what way does Elyria fall short of 100 per cent?"

"In cleanness," said one.

"What per cent clean do you think Elyria is?"

"About 70 per cent," one guessed.

"Are there other ways in which Elyria falls short of 100 per cent?"

"In pavements," said one. "In taking care of garbage," said another.

"What is the matter with the pavements?"

"Some streets are not paved at all, and the pavements in other streets are bad."

"And what happens to the garbage?"

"Some of it is thrown over the bank of the river."

"What is wrong with that?"

"It makes the river dirty." "It is not good for the health."

"Does it affect the city's drinking water?"

"No; the drinking water comes from Lake Erie and there isn't any better water."

"Is it pure?"

"Yes."

"It's good to find one way in which the city approaches 100 per cent, isn't it?"

"Yes; and it's a 100 per cent business city, too. There isn't any, better business city in the country."

"Are the schools 100 per cent?"

"No."

"Is it possible for a city to be a 100 per cent city without having 100 per cent citizens?"

"No."

Elyria is a fairly typical American community. It is doubtless above the average of cities of its class in some respects; it may be below the average in other respects. It is not imagined that the Elyrian believes in 100 per cent perfection at the present time, or even in the possibility of attaining to that goal literally in the future. But at least an influential portion of the population is ambitious to approximate this high standard of civic efficiency as closely as possible.

The relation between 100 per cent citizens and a 100 per cent city is indeed a vital one. No city can be a 100 per cent city, nor hope even to approximate it, that does not make provision for the citizenship training of its youth. The public school is par excellence the agency which the community has established for this purpose. How far it is accomplishing the purpose in Elyria this chapter is to discuss.

THE SPECIAL INDUSTRIAL CLASS FOR BOYS.

The special industrial class is comprised of boys selected from that group of pupils who, according to the standards of the school, have fallen furthest short of 100 per cent perfection. They are commonly known as "failures." The application of the word "failure" to school children is probably no more common in Elyria than elsewhere, but it is frequently made. A primary teacher remarked in the hearing of her 27 children, "This row [of 6 children, some of them of foreign parentage] are failures." Almost 25 per cent of this class of 6 and 7 year olds are thus stigmatized as failures almost before they have made a start in life. A big boy in high school was pointed out as taking ancient history for the fifth time. His progress in other studies was said to be about equally slow. He is a "failure." He has some excellent qualities and some "interests," but "they are interests for which the school does not provide." In the elementary schools of Elyria 19 pupils are reported (in addition to the 18 boys in the special industrial class) who are three or more years behind their age grades; 71 who are two to three years behind; 162 who are one to two years behind; and 438 who are one-half to one year behind. Together these constitute more than 30 per cent of the enrollment in the elementary grades.

Has not the word "failure" been applied in the wrong place? Which are falling furthest short of the 100 per cent mark, the community's children or the community's schools? Of course, failure on the part of a pupil means failure only in the studies he is taking; happily it does not necessarily mean failure in life. We know that a boy will not necessarily be a failure in life because he does not learn nor like ancient history or algebra, or any other particular subject. But failure in studies does mean retardation, and retardation is very likely to mean discouragement and therefore ultimately failure of a more serious kind. It becomes extremely important, therefore, to discover where the failure lies and to determine what the school and the community can do to remedy it.

Of the 18 boys in the special industrial class, 6 are designated as "unreliable," "untruthful," "bluffer," "truant," "selfish," "lazy," "without ambition"; 1 is reported as "criminal." But even these personal characteristics, to which is attributed in large measure the "failure" of the boys, are themselves the result, in part at least, of physical and social conditions that fall far short of the 100 per cent mark, and the boys can not be held responsible for them. Most of the boys have physical defects that might easily contribute to their backwardness in school. These are mostly preventable or remediable, such as bad teeth and eyes; 100 per cent medical inspection in the early grades might have saved some of these boys. Fully half of the boys, including most of those with bad personal qualities, come from homes that are far from 100 per cent good; in some cases almost 100 per cent bad.

Moreover, there is nothing that is more likely to make a boy a bluffer, or a truant, or lazy, or ambitionless, than the daily grind of work that makes no appeal to his interest in life, or that is not at least relieved by work that makes this appeal. Of the 18 boys in the class, 10 are reported as "fine boys" or "good boys," and another is "doing fine work in this class" although with a bad past record against him. They are in the class merely because they could not "get along" in the regular system of the graded schools, and took no interest in the work offered there.

The special industrial class is inadequately equipped. It does have the use of the well-equipped woodworking shops of the high school; but the room which they occupy for their academic work, while large and light, has not been made attractive for boys. The walls are barren and dismal; there are no pictures or "exhibit materials" that interest boys; the furniture is old and miscellaneous, giving a makeshift appearance and calling forth an apology from the teacher. There is no playground. The boys have no gymnasium work, the high-school gymnasium not being available during school hours, and most of the boys having to work after school.

Nevertheless, in some respects the work in this class is better than much of that seen in the regular graded classes. This is because the "system" has been in larger measure adjusted to the pupils by the organization of their work around their life interests.

Approximately one-half of the school day is given to shopwork and drawing—activities that hold the interest of the boys. The academic work which occupies the other half-day is to a considerable extent organized in relation to the manual work, though much more might be done in this direction. The teacher puts a good deal of vitality into the academic subjects. The geography, for example, is largely industrial geography and is taught in its practical relations to life. It is taken up through such books as Chamberlain's How We Are Fed and How We Are Clothed, which also serve as material for the reading lesson. The subject of reading, which includes language work, spelling, and writing, is based, not upon formal reading or language texts, but upon such supplementary material as Brown's Good Health for Boys and Girls. Jewett's The Body at Work, Gordy's American History, and such magazines as Popular Mechanics and Popular Science. Even trade catalogues describing mechanical apparatus, etc., are made the medium for learning to read and to spell. Burton's Shop Projects Based on Community Problems gives a civic turn to the shopwork.

In other words, the attention of the boys is focused more definitely upon a subject matter that is of direct interest to them because of its relation to life than upon the mechanical processes of learning to read, write, and spell. They are not particularly interested in "learning to read," but they are intensely interested in "learning to read popular mechanics and popular science."

Although the above paragraphs fairly represent the evident aim in the special class, the aim is not attained to the extent that it should be. There seems to be, even here, a fear of departing too widely from the formal course of study prescribed for the regular grades. When asked for the course of study of the boys who were doing eighth grade work, the teacher said "arithmetic, reading, geography, drawing, and manual training." The same reply was given regarding the work of the lower grades. When asked about history, hygiene, and other content subjects, the reply was that these were "supplementary to reading"; and this in spite of the fact that in practice, so far as observation indicated, the reading was really supplementary to the content subjects.

With a group of boys of this sort, at least, why not depart entirely from the formalism which has been a cause of their undoing in the regular grades, and substitute a course of study that might read something like this: Physical development, including both physical training and the study of personal and community hygiene; mechanics, including both shop practice and the study of popular mechanics; science, which should be related to physical development and to mechanics and include much nature study and geography; industry, correlated with geography, mechanics, and science, and affording opportunity for a discussion of vocations; and citizenship or community study, based largely upon observation of the community life about them. Then let the processes of learning to read and use the English language and of mathematical calculation become more largely a by-product of the entire course. Why not, in other words, give formal recognition to the principle which the teacher of this class is trying to apply with more or less success with the faulty machinery at his disposal?

THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

A glance at the elementary course of study (1915) gives the impression that the children of Elyria are constantly engaged from the first grade to the eighth with the formal processes of reading, language, spelling, grammar, number work or arithmetic, and memory training exercises. The community has a right to expect that the product of its schools shall have been taught to read and use the English language and to perform the essential arithmetical processes. Still, the reason why Elyria has a special industrial class for boys is not because of a fear that these 18 boys will not use correct English or know how to compute interest, but because of the fear that these derelicts of the school system will not be good citizens. The chief concern of the community with respect to its schools is whether they are constructively developing a 100 per cent citizenship. That the net influence of Elyria's schools does make for a better citizenship is not questioned, and some of their work is aimed consciously to cultivate good civic qualities and habits. But on the whole the civic educational purpose of public education is obscured and even negatived by the stress laid upon mere formal intellectual discipline.

The only direct civics instruction offered in the elementary schools of Elyria consists of a brief study of the Constitution of the United States appended to the course in American history and the reading of an elementary civics reader during about six weeks of the last half of the eighth grade. It is obvious that very little real preparation for citizenship can be accomplished with children in this brief time. The comments of teachers and principals indicated that much of this work is perfunctory. In the study of the Constitution the children are supposed to learn a few cold facts about the organization of our Government. In the supplementary reading the civics reader is read through with a minimum of discussion, the amount depending upon the interest of the teacher in the civic content as distinguished from the reading lesson. It can be said with almost literal truth that there is no direct civics instruction worthy of the name in the Elyria elementary schools. A number of the teachers expressed the wish for something more vital.

Of the other elementary social studies, history affords the richest opportunity for direct civic instruction. That provided for in the course of study is as follows:

Fourth grade, Eggleston's Short Stories from American History (supplementary reading).

Fifth grade, Eggleston's Short Stories from American History (supplementary reading).

Sixth grade, B division: Blaisdell's Story of American History (supplementary reading).

Seventh grade, B division: First Steps in History of England (reading).

Seventh grade, A division: American history.

Eighth grade, B division: American history (continued).

Eighth grade, A division: American history (completed).

American history rightly holds the dominant place in the history instruction of an elementary school. In Elyria it is the only history taught, except for the half-year's reading course in First Steps in English History in the seventh grade. A definite civic purpose doubtless dictates the relative prominence given to the subject, for familiarity with the history of our country is supposed to breed patriotism. That the subject as taught in the Elyria schools has a certain civic value is not questioned; but that value is far below what might be derived from it. This again is due to the formalism of instruction, the lack of relation of the subject to the experience of the children and to other subjects of instruction. The children are learning so many pages of facts each day and the teachers (generally speaking) are devoting every energy to "completing the book."

The study of geography begins in the third grade as supplementary reading, the reader being entitled "home geography." The title of this supplementary reading course is justified only because the book used is so entitled. Few of the teachers seem to recognize that "the geographic world is in the neighborhood; it needs only to be discovered." Excursions into the neighborhood to observe nature are rarely made. Teachers who acknowledge the value of such first-hand observation say that it is impracticable under existing conditions. The chief difficulty mentioned is the fact that each teacher has two grades in her care, and is unable to leave one to go out with the other. One teacher spoke of occasional excursions in the immediate neighborhood of the school when a practice teacher is available to take charge of the room.

In the fourth grade geography becomes an independent subject and so continues into the seventh grade. It is supplemented in the fifth and seventh grades with further "supplementary reading" of a geographical character. But almost without exception it is of the purely textbook type. The textbooks used are among the best published; but the best of textbooks can not vitalize the subject unless their content is constantly interpreted in terms of the pupil's experience, and correlated with other work that the pupil is doing or has done and with subjects about which he is thinking. Some attention is given to a study of occupations in connection with geography, and the industries of Elyria are sometimes discussed to a slight extent. Elyria is an important industrial center, and is in the heart of a great industrial region. This important fact should afford a vital point of departure for much of the geographical study instead of being given mere casual notice.

The course of study suggests that in the sixth grade there should be "discussions through the year in the history of Elyria, its geography, beauties, industries, scenery, growth, institutions of most interest and value." The suggestion does not seem to be followed in an organized way. This sort of study should not be left to chance, nor be limited to the sixth grade. The meaning of our national life, and even of world relations, becomes vastly clearer to children when it is interpreted in the terms of, and in relation to, local community life.

In all of the schools of Elyria one full period a week is set apart for the study or reading of "Current Events." This exercise is too often treated as a mere reading lesson, and too seldom with any vital relation to the work in geography, history, hygiene, etc. Only a few of the teachers make good use of this little paper, yet, as a rule, the children seem to take great pleasure in the current-events hour.

Instruction in hygiene is now given in all grades, varying in different schools and in different grades from 15 minutes to about 40 minutes per week until the eighth grade is reached, when the average time per week for all schools is 72 minutes for the B division and 110 minutes for the A division. In the fourth grade Good Health for Boys and Girls is read as supplementary reading in most of the schools, and in the seventh grade a Primer of Sanitation is read in three schools.

Hygiene instruction has a civic bearing in two ways—because of the close relation between physical fitness and efficient citizenship, and because of the relation of the subject to public hygiene and sanitation.

We are only beginning to appreciate properly the civic responsibility of the school for the physical fitness of the rising generation. It is the foundation of national efficiency in times of peace as in times of war. Civics and health are vitally related, and the schools of the country are gradually awakening to the fact. Instruction in hygiene should be continuous throughout the school course, as it appears to be in Elyria, and it should be correlated closely with continuous physical training, play, medical inspection, clinics, etc. The excellent, but inadequate, clinical work of the Elyria schools is treated elsewhere in this report (p. 40).

Comparatively little attention is given in Elyria, apparently, to the larger problems of public health and community cooperation through government and otherwise for health conservation.

Reference has been made to the disproportionate emphasis given in the course of study to the formal subjects (the three R's) as compared with the subjects with a distinctly social content. The subject of reading in the Elyria schools has a large social content, and could be made a potent factor in the civic education of the child. The criticism is not that reading is made a channel for social and civic instruction, but that such a large part of the social content of the course of study is included in the reading course and then obscured by the drill in the technique of reading.

As far as could be discovered, the work in language, spelling, writing, arithmetic, and drawing has little, if any, direct or conscious relation to the social life of the pupils, except in the industrial class for boys.

The criticisms that have been made will have a clearer meaning and a more constructive value by contrasting the organization and methods in Elyria with those found elsewhere. Only brief suggestion can be given here.

In the schools of Indianapolis, for example, the children are drilled, and drilled thoroughly, in the use of the English language, but the point first emphasized in the published course of study is that—

> language lessons should be based upon the experience of the pupil. These lessons may be connected with reading, with stories told by the teacher, with nature study, with pictures, and with incidents of home and school.

The aim is—

> to make of education, not a process of instruction in a variety of subjects, but a process of living, of growth, during which the various relations of life are unfolded—civic, geographical, historical, ethical, vocational, etc.

The school life is a life of constructive activity. Soon after school opens in the fall the children of the first grade begin making simple Christmas presents for the various members of their families. They may also furnish a doll's house. Meanwhile, home stories are read and told to the children, including home stories from nature, and conversations are held regarding—

> The family: What parents do for children; how children may show their gratitude; helpfulness; care of toys, furniture, clothing; sharing of pleasures; respect for age; work of each in the service of the whole.

This "doing things and talking about things" not only afford the opportunity and the material for training in the use of English, but the content relates to group activities and relations in the home, constituting the beginning of a continuous course of social and civic training that runs throughout the grades.

Frequent short excursions in the immediate neighborhood are made, during which the children have opportunity to observe the flowers, the birds, and the animals of the home district, and the rain, snow, frost, clouds, wind. This is the beginning of nature study (sadly lacking in the Elyria schools) and of geography, which are continuous throughout the elementary school and afford further experience materials for training in the use of language.

In the second grade this nature study and home geography are continued but the story of Robinson Crusoe is taken up and studied for five weeks—

the story of a single-handed struggle with nature, emphasizing by contrast our dependence upon community life.

At the same time the children are studying their own home life "in contact with activities of the community":

How the community serves the home. Representatives of the community who come to the home: The milkman, the garbage man, the postman. How the home serves the community: Care of premises; conduct toward neighbors; conduct in stores; etc.

Hiawatha's childhood is also studied in this grade, giving opportunity for a study of Indian family life and a comparison of it with their own home life and the life of Robinson Crusoe.

By means of these and other stories, historical as well as geographical concepts are introduced—the idea of change and development in modes of life, etc. Included in the considerable list of stories of this grade are such as The Carpenter, The Baker, Shoemaker and Elves, The Flax, A Visit to the Weaver, which are correlated with much of the work described above and emphasize occupational life. The children model in sand a village street or a city thoroughfare and engage in clay work and basketry, making objects suggested by the story of Crusoe and of Hiawatha. Meanwhile, they are drilled constantly in the use of language, not as a separate thing, but because they have to use language in reproducing the stories of the grade and in conversation relating to concurrent activities.

Even the learning of the simple arithmetical processes is correlated to some extent with the general civic or social idea of the grade. The young children frequently make visits to the grocery or market on errands for the home. In one second-grade class visited the children were reporting to the teacher the current prices of meats, groceries, and provisions of various kinds. "Committees" of children were made responsible for ascertaining the prices of particular articles, taken largely from the sales checks accompanying each purchase. Boys whose fathers had groceries or meat markets were sometimes called upon to verify doubtful reports. The data thus gathered were used as the basis for arithmetical work.

Even in the first grade the teachers are instructed to—

> teach the relative value of numbers through 10, by games, building, drawing, and pictures. Also, incidentally, in the general work of the school, in arranging and distributing material, and in all situations where a knowledge of numbers is necessary. The teacher must take the time to direct the activities of the children in such a way as to make necessary the learning of numbers in certain exercises.

A description of the organization of social study in the elementary grades of Indianapolis is given in Bulletin, 1915, No. 17, United States Bureau of Education. Suffice it to say here that it culminates in the eighth grade with a course in "community civics, which is intimately correlated with the other work of the same grade and is in truth a 'crowning course' in the organized civic education of the child in the elementary schools."[1] From first grade to eighth the civic value of the course of study lies in its organization around the social experience of the children. In gathering materials for the lessons, whether in civics or arithmetic; in conferring with parents; in errands to the store; in choosing committees to do certain things; in comparing experiences; and in many other ways, the pupils not only get practice in group action and in dealing with real situations, but they also acquire a fund of experience which serves as a basis for much of their instruction.

The formal type of textbook instruction prevalent in the Elyria schools is inconsistent with such group activity, and really precludes it. Moreover, where instruction has so little relation to the pupil's experience and surroundings one would hardly expect to find much exhibit material, or other material aids, in the classroom. One teacher held in her hand a cotton pod during a lesson on the cotton-growing States, which is noteworthy because of the exceptional occurrence of such use of illustrative materials. In another room a small table contained a few old magazines and perhaps a dozen ancient stereoscopic views of no particular educational value. The teacher said these were for the amusement of the children in leisure time and not used in connection with instruction. In a first-year high-school history classroom, a machine for projecting images of opaque objects upon a screen was observed. The teacher said this was used by a science class that occupied the same room at another period; it had not occurred to her that it could be a valuable ally in her own work. The teachers of Elyria have apparently not learned of the rich variety of material aids available to keep the children's minds centered upon the realities of life; or the methods of instruction preclude the use of such material except in an artificial manner.

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[1] The Board of Education of Indianapolis publishes pamphlets containing the courses of study in the several subjects of the curriculum—English, mathematics, geography, history, civics—with full instructions to teachers as to method of handling.

The chapter on civic education in the report of the United States Commissioner of Education on the schools of San Francisco discusses in detail the course of social study and the methods of instruction.

See also "The Teaching of Community Civics," Bulletin, 1915, No. 23, and "Social Studies in Secondary Education," Bulletin, 1916, No. 28, U. S. Bureau of Education.

THE HIGH SCHOOL.

THE COURSE OF STUDY.

The Elyria High School offers the following social studies:

First Year.—General history, including ancient, medieval, and modern European history; entire year; textbook, Myers's General History.

Second Year.—English history; entire year; textbook, Wrong's History of the British Nation.

Industrial history; second half-year; textbook, Moore's Industrial History of the American People.

Commercial geography; second half-year; textbook, Brigham's Commercial Geography.

Commercial law; first half-year; textbook, Goro's Commercial Law.

Third Year.—No social study offered.

Fourth Year.—American history; entire year; textbook, Channing's History of the United States.

Many pupils defer second-year subjects until the third year, and some third-year pupils take American history.

There is no separate course in civics or government, though some attention is given to the subject in American history. Neither is there a course in economics, though there are three courses of definite economic content.

The high-school pupils have choice of four curricula which are designated in the last published course of study (1915) as "classical," "science," "commercial," and "industrial." At present there seems to be no definite recognition of the science course, a "mixed" course being mentioned instead, which seems to include pupils who are not definitely enrolled in any of the other three courses.

Of 600 pupils responding to an inquiry, 216 reported taking the classical, 89 the commercial, 198 the industrial, and 89 a "mixed" course.

The curricula differ little with respect to the social studies included. General history is required of all pupils, except that it is said to be optional with science in the commercial course. English history is required of classical pupils only. It is elective for all others. Subjects that have a peculiarly important relation to commercial and industrial training, such as commercial geography and industrial history, are elected equally, and in some cases to a greater extent, by classical pupils.

The following tables are based on returns obtained directly from the pupils. They are not absolutely accurate. It was discovered too late to be remedied that some pupils reported twice from different rooms. Such cases are probably not sufficiently numerous to vitiate the general conclusions. At the time of the inquiry the total enrollment in the school was close to 650; the number of individual reports received is 600.

No table is shown for general history, inasmuch as it is said to be a required course except for commercial students, who may elect science instead. Conflicting statements were made on this point. From the returns obtained the following facts appear: 95 per cent of all first-year pupils are taking or have had general history; 92 per cent of all second-year pupils and 88 per cent of all third and fourth year pupils are taking or have taken the subject. The subject is taken almost as generally by pupils in the commercial course as by others (90 per cent in the first year, 91 per cent in the second year).

TABLE 1.—*English history—Number of pupils in each of the four curricula who are taking or have taken it.*[1]

Pupils.	Classical.		Commercial.		Industrial.		Mixed.		Total.	
	Number reported.	Number taking the subject.	Number reported.	Number taking the subject.	Number reported.	Number taking the subject.	Number reported.	Number taking the subject.	Number reported.	Number taking the subject.
Second year:										
Boys	23	18	6	0	46	11	12	4	87	33
Girls	35	32	18	0	15	0	12	2	80	34
Total	58	50	21	0	61	11	24	6	167	67
Third year:										
Boys	14	13	6	0	25	2	15	8	60	23
Girls	38	27	4	1	14	6	14	11	70	45
Total	52	40	10	1	39	8	29	19	130	68
Fourth year:										
Boys	7	4	2	0	15	1	11	4	35	9
Girls	24	17	3	0	9	4	13	8	49	29
Total	31	21	5	0	24	5	24	12	84	38

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[1] Only 2 first-year pupils are taking the subject.

Although English history is "required" of classical pupils, only about two-thirds of the present fourth-year classical pupils have taken it. Only 1 out of 39 commercial pupils and 24 out of 64 industrial pupils in the last three years of the high-school course have taken the subject. English history is more popular with the girls than with the boys. In the second year, 34 out of 80 girls have elected the subject, as against 33 out of 87 boys; in the third year, 45 out of 70 girls, as against 23 out of 60 boys; and in the fourth year, 29 out of 49 girls, as against 9 out of 35 boys.

TABLE 2.—*American history—Number of pupils in each of the four curricula who are taking or have taken it.*[1]

Pupils.	Classical.		Commercial.		Industrial.		Mixed.		Total.	
	Number reported.	Number taking the subject.	Number reported.	Number taking the subject.	Number reported.	Number taking the subject.	Number reported.	Number taking the subject.	Number reported.	Number taking the subject.
Third year:										
Boys	14	1	6	0	25	1	15	6	60	8
Girls	38	4	4	0	14	0	14	2	70	6
Total	52	5	10	0	39	1	29	8	130	14
Fourth year:										
Boys	7	4	2	1	15	4	11	4	35	13
Girls	24	9	3	0	9	4	13	6	49	19
Total	31	13	5	1	24	8	24	10	84	32

[1] Only 4 of the first and second year pupils have taken the subject.

Only 32 of the 84 pupils in the present fourth-year class and 14 out of the 130 in the third-year class have elected American history. The records of the classes graduating in the past five years show that fully 50 per cent of the pupils entering the high school do not reach the third year and therefore have no course in American history. However, those who take the course in industrial history get an aspect of United States history (see Table 3.)

TABLE 3.—*Industrial history—Number of pupils in each of the four curricula who are taking or have taken it.*[1]

Pupils.	Classical.		Commercial.		Industrial.		Mixed.		Total.	
	Number reported.	Number taking the subject.	Number reported.	Number taking the subject.	Number reported.	Number taking the subject.	Number reported.	Number taking the subject.	Number reported.	Number taking the subject.
Second year:	23	3	6	1	46	0	12	1	87	5
Boys										
Girls	35	1	18	1	15	0	12	0	80	2
Total	58	4	24	2	61	0	24	1	167	7
Third year:										
Boys	14	1	6	1	25	1	15	4	60	7
Girls	38	7	4	0	14	1	14	2	70	10
Total	52	8	10	1	39	2	29	6	130	17
Fourth year:										
Boys	7	0	2	2	15	13	11	5	35	20
Girls	24	1	3	3	9	0	13	7	49	11
Total	31	1	5	5	24	13	24	12	84	31

[1] No pupils in the first year have taken industrial history.

Industrial history of the United States is offered as a half-year course in the second year. Only 7 out of 167 pupils in the present second-year class are taking it; 4 of these are classical pupils, 2 commercial pupils, and no industrial pupils. Of the 17 in the third year who have elected this subject 8 are classical (7 of them girls), 1 commercial, and 2 industrial. The other 6 are not classified. In the fourth-year class, four-sevenths of the boys have taken this subject, and less than one-fourth of the girls. Of the 31 fourth-year pupils who are now taking this subject, 13 are industrial, 5 commercial, and only 1 classical; 12 are unclassified.

The teacher of this class asserted that it is composed largely of pupils who have failed in geometry. That is, it seems to be a sort of refuge for those who have marked inability in the latter subject but who must have something to do, instead of a positive opportunity for those for whom industrial history might have especial importance.

TABLE 4.—*Commercial geography.—Number of pupils in each of the four curricula who are taking or have taken it.*[1]

Pupils.	Classical.		Commercial.		Industrial.		Mixed.		Total.	
	Number reported.	Number taking the subject.	Number reported.	Number taking the subject.	Number reported.	Number taking the subject.	Number reported.	Number taking the subject.	Number reported.	Number taking the subject.
Second year:										
Boys	23	0	6	1	46	0	12	1	87	2
Girls	35	0	18	2	15	0	12	0	80	2
Total	58	0	24	3	61	0	24	1	167	4
Third year:										
Boys	14	0	6	6	25	1	15	4	60	11
Girls	38	0	4	1	14	0	14	1	70	2
Total	52	0	10	7	39	1	29	5	130	13
Fourth year:										
Boys	7	0	2	2	15	2	11	4	35	8
Girls	24	0	3	3	9	2	13	6	49	11
Total	31	0	5	5	24	4	24	10	84	19

[1] No pupils in the first year have taken this subject.

TABLE 5.—*Commercial law—Number of pupils in each of the four curricula who are taking or have taken it.*

Pupils.	Classical.		Commercial.		Industrial.		Mixed.		Total.	
	Number reported.	Number taking the subject.	Number reported.	Number taking the subject.	Number reported.	Number taking the subject.	Number reported.	Number taking the subject.	Number reported.	Number taking the subject.
First year:										
Boys	36	1	11	0	46	1	5	0	98	2
Girls	39	10	39	1	28	2	7	1	113	14
Total	75	11	50	1	74	3	12	1	211	16
Second year:										
Boys	23	0	6	0	46	2	12	0	87	2
Girls	35	0	18	0	15	0	12	0	90	0
Total	58	0	24	0	61	2	24	0	167	2
Third year:										
Boys	14	8	6	2	25	16	15	9	60	35
Girls	38	35	4	3	14	12	14	11	70	61
Total	52	43	10	5	39	28	29	20	130	96
Fourth year:										
Boys	7	3	2	2	15	3	11	2	35	10
Girls	24	15	3	3	9	5	13	5	49	28
Total	31	18	5	5	24	8	24	7	84	38

An interesting feature of this table is the remarkable popularity of commercial law shown among the girls, and especially girls of the classical course.

TABLE 6.—*Number of social studies taken by the members of the present senior class during their high-school course.*

Pupils.	Social studies.	
No pupil has taken	All	6
2 of the 35 boys and 1 of the 49 girls have taken		5
6 of the 35 boys and 14 of the 49 girls have taken		4
7 of the 35 boys and 17 of the 49 girls have taken		3
16 of the 35 boys and 12 of the 49 girls have taken		2
4 of the 35 boys and 5 of the 49 girls have taken		1

It is clear from this table that the number of social studies offered indicates little as to the number taken by the pupils. Nearly one-half of the boys have taken only two social studies, and only one-fifth of them have taken three out of the six offered. The girls have taken more; more than one-third of them have taken three, and two-sevenths of them have taken four. But almost one-fourth of the girls have had but two.

The members of the present senior class have made the following combinations of their social studies during their high-school course:

TABLE 7.—*Combinations of social studies by the members of the senior class.*

History—General, English, American, industrial; geography; law.	Boys.	Girls.
Combinations of 5 social studies.		
General, English, American, industrial history; geography; ——	2	0
General, English, American, ——— history; geography; law	0	1
Combinations of 4 social studies.		
General, English, American, ——— history; ———; law	1	6
General, English, American, ——— history; geography; ——	0	1
General, English, American, industrial history; ———; ——	1	0
General, English, ———, industrial history; geography; ——	0	3
General, ———, American, industrial history; ———; law	1	0
General, ———, ———, industrial history; geography; law	2	2
General, ———, American, industrial history; geography; ——	0	2
———, ———, American, industrial history; geography; law	1	0
Combinations of 3 social studies.		
General, English, American, ——— history, ———; ——	2	2
General, English, ———, ——— history; ———; law	0	7
General, English, ———, industrial history; ———; ——	1	2
General, ———, American, ——— history; ———; law	1	4
General, ———, American, industrial history; ———; ——	1	0
General, ———, ———, industrial history; ———; law	1	0
General, ———, ———, industrial history; geography; ——	1	0
General, ———, ———, ——— history; geography; law	0	1
———, ———, ———, industrial history; geography; law	0	1
Combinations of 2 social studies.		
General, English, ———, ——— history; ———; ——	1	6
General, ———, American, ——— history; ———; ——	3	1
General, ———, ———, industrial history; ———; ——	7	0
General, ———, ———, ——— history; geography; ——	2	0
General, ———, ———, ——— history; ———; law	3	2
———, English, ———, ——— history; ———; law	0	1
———, ———, American, ——— history; ———; law	0	1
———, ———, ———, industrial history; ———; law	0	1
Those taking 1 social study.		
General, ———, ———, ——— history; ———; ——	1	3
———, English, ———, ——— history; ———; ——	1	0
———, ———, American, ——— history; ———; ——	0	1
———, ———, ———, industrial history; ———; ——	2	0
———, ———, ———, ——— history; ———; law	0	1

Number of boys and girls of present senior class taking history course.

Subjects.	Of 35 boys.	Of 49 girls.
General history is taken by	31	43
American history	13	19
English history	9	29
American and English history	6	10
American and industrial history	6	2
Industrial history of the United States	20	11
American, English, and industrial history	3	0

Conclusions.—The foregoing tables indicate that, while the high-school course of study is organized in several curricula apparently to provide for the requirements of well-marked groups of pupils, and while several social studies are offered that have special relation to industrial and commercial life, subjects are not elected nor combinations of subjects made by individual pupils with sufficient regard to their relation to each other or to the pupils' own aims and requirements. The tables also show the wide divergence between the social studies *offered* and those *taken*.

Too few pupils are receiving instruction in American history. This is especially significant from the standpoint of education for citizenship.

No instruction is given at all in modern or recent European history, except a very inadequate amount at the end of the course in general history. Social study, other than history, is very inadequately provided for.

METHODS OF INSTRUCTION.

Whatever their other values, the social studies, including history, present rich opportunity to prepare the pupil for citizenship. The extent to which this opportunity is realized depends in part upon the organization of the course of study, as discussed in the previous section, but even more upon methods of instruction.

Undoubtedly more attention should be given to a consideration of our governments than is given casually in the Elyria High School in connection with American history. Yet much of the instruction in government given in American high schools is of relatively small value as a means of training for active, effective citizenship. The mere introduction of a separate course in government is of small importance as compared with the development of the full civic value of the social studies already offered.

American history.—"To produce a fine type of citizen" is given by the teacher of American history as the chief aim of instruction in that subject. Frequent observation of the work of the classes, full discussion with the teacher, and some slight discussion with the pupils themselves indicated that an intelligent effort is made to realize this aim.

Opportunity is found to teach the pupils something about the nature of our Government. Biographical study, which may be a fruitful source of patriotic and civic inspiration, also finds its place. But the chief point of excellence is that, although the purpose of helping the class to understand past events and conditions was apparent, a purpose was even more evident to interpret present conditions and problems in the light of the past. Instruction in these classes is limited by the scope of the textbook less than in any others observed. The starting point of the lesson is just as likely to be a situation existing to-day, or an occurrence of yesterday, as an event of the period under consideration. And whether the starting point is in the present or in the past, whether it is something in the textbook or a piece of news in the morning paper, the relations between past and present are emphasized. It is this interpretation, not merely of the present but especially of the pupil's present experience, that gives to history instruction one of its chief civic values and opportunities.

A second point of excellence in the American-history instruction is the conscious development of civic traits and habits. There is more discussion in these classes than in most of the classes visited, discussion of a kind to develop judgment and initiative on the part of the pupil. An unusual spirit of cooperation prevails. The community spirit is marked, and the relation between teacher and pupils is that of cordial cooperation for class ends. For example, when the teacher was asked for certain data regarding pupil activities her pupils were called into service at once to compile the information, which was placed at the disposal of the investigator the next day, and the class was interested in the effort. This method of obtaining information may not seem remarkable, but the point is that it seemed to be habitual in these classes; it was a matter of course that all had an interest in the question in hand.

Even in the American-history classes, however, there were times when "information for its own sake" seemed to be the only end in view; there was not so much spontaneous discussion as there should be; the lack of reference books and other equipment prevents the full development of initiative and cooperation in the preparation of material for class use, and the pupils are thrown too much upon the textbook and upon what the teacher tells them.

It is to be regretted that the training afforded by this work in American history reaches such a small number of the pupils in the high school. Perhaps one reason for it is that all pupils have studied American history in the grammar grades. This point was discussed by the observer with one of the American-history classes. The pupils showed an unusual appreciation of the relation that ought to exist between the grammar-school work and that of the fourth year of the high school. They felt that there was not, and should not be, any duplication. Their greater maturity and widened social experience give them a perspective that the grammar-school pupil can not have.

English history.—There are four classes in English history. Three of these are taught by the teacher of American history, and the work is characterized in general by the same methods observed in the American-history classes. But there is an appreciably greater suggestion of information for its own sake. The fourth class in English history was more narrowly a textbook study.

In general it would seem that English history is overemphasized in the Elyria High School, especially in comparison with American history, while at the same time its full value as a factor in the social and civic education of the pupil is not attained. On the other hand, there is almost complete neglect of the subject in the education of the pupils in the commercial department, which is unfortunate, in view of the wealth of material which it presents in close relation to the interests of this group of pupils.

General history.—The course in general history includes the entire range of European history from antiquity to the present time. One of the teachers said, "Owing to the immense amount of material to be covered, we give very inadequate treatment to the period from 1815 to the present. The plan followed is essentially that of the textbook." The textbook is supplemented to a very slight extent by outside reading; there is very little reference work, and that largely by pupils with special topics. There are not enough maps for all the rooms where history is taught, and other supplementary helps are inadequate.

The work done has little relation to present life. In one class visited the subject was the invasion of Europe by the barbarians. It was entirely a memory lesson, and the pupils experienced great difficulty in remembering the names of the different invaders; and they did not seem to care. The observer asked the class, "Why are you studying these barbarians?"

After the first manifest surprise at such a question, one pupil replied, "Statesmen need to know because history repeats itself."

"But you are not a statesman. Why do *you* need to know?"

After some hesitation others replied, "To learn the origin of our language; to learn about the development of civilization."

When pressed, the boy who gave the last answer denied that he had any particular interest in the development of civilization. Thinking of the other answer, the observer asked, "Have you ever heard the word 'vandal' before to-day's lesson?" No one replied to this for some time, and then one girl said she had heard the word "vandalism," and agreed that it came from the name of the Vandals, giving a satisfactory reason for it.

"How many of you read the newspapers?" Many hands went up.

"How many of you have seen the word 'Hun' in the newspapers in connection with the great war in Europe?" None had.

"Are any of you descended from the Huns, or the Saracens, or the Iberians, or the Teutons, or other barbarians mentioned?" The idea seemed an entirely new one to the class, and for some time no response came. One boy finally said that "probably" he was descended from the Teutons.

This particular incident may have little significance, and certainly no generalizations can be made from it. But it illustrates the impression gained that most of the work these pupils were doing in general history is a matter of uninteresting routine, with no direct value in their present processes of growth.

It should be said that the teachers themselves, as well as the principal and the superintendent, are highly dissatisfied with the general history course and contemplate a change. They feel that "the period covered is far too long for any adequate understanding by 14-year-old pupils in nine months' study," and that "the time we can give to any one topic is too short to permit any but the most fragmentary treatment." The teachers complain of "lack of freedom in selecting and omitting topics and in apportioning the time needed for a topic without being hampered by the necessity of reaching a certain point at some stated day."

Economic subjects.—At the time of the survey there was one class each in industrial history and commercial geography. The content of these subjects is vitally related to life and to other subjects in the curriculum. Instruction in such subjects should be based largely upon observation and experience, and should contribute much, directly and indirectly, to civic training. In fact, however, the work seemed to have little civic value. It is doubtful if it even gives the pupils much usable information. Even from the standpoint of mental discipline, these particular courses are ineffective. In one lesson, for example, the subject in commercial geography was "concentration of industry in the United States." A half dozen pupils were sent to the blackboard to put on an outline, consisting of a list of cities with their characteristic industries. The outlines were placed on the board in bad form with many errors. It was entirely memory work, poorly done. One boy knew nothing of the subject, and copied freely from his neighbors. These pupils were at the board during most of the period, getting no benefit from the recitation that was going on simultaneously, and their outlines were not referred to during the period. Meanwhile the pupils in their seats were engaged in recitations, in which no thought whatever was apparent, no discussion took place, and little interest manifested either by the one reciting or by the class. Words were used without understanding. Difficulties were put off to be "looked up to-morrow."

Class work of this kind, taken in connection with the fact that pupils are placed in the class in industrial history for no better reason than that they have failed in geometry, raises the question of the utility of offering these courses, at least in their present form. Yet the commercial and industrial aspects of geography and history, or the geographical and historical relations of economic life, should occupy an important place in education. They need reorganization in relation to the other studes of the curriculum and to the life interests of the pupils.

SUGGESTIONS FOR A COURSE OF STUDY.

A thorough reorganization of the course of study in both elementary and high schools is desirable. The following suggestions are offered with particular reference to the social studies or those whose content has a direct civic bearing:

The organization of the 12 years of elementary and secondary education in three "cycles," as suggested in the report of the committee on social studies of the National Education Association[1] has decided advantages. It is in conformity with the present tendency toward a 6–3–3 organization, with provision for junior and senior high schools. But whether this organization is adopted throughout or not, the cycle arrangement of social studies still holds good. One of its chief advantages is that it provides for a certain comprehensiveness and completeness of civic training through social study for pupils who do not complete the entire school course. It also conforms roughly to well-marked periods of physiological and social development in the child.

Grades 1–6: The elementary cycle.—In this period as little emphasis as possible should be placed upon the division of the child's work into "subjects," especially the formal "disciplinary subjects," and as much emphasis as possible placed upon the child's life experience as the organizing principle of all his school work.[2] Through observation, experience, story, and discussion, the child in this period should acquire a familiarity with the natural world about him and man's struggle with it; with changes that have occurred in customs of living; with occupational life and the necessity for industry and thrift; with group relations as seen in the family, the school, the neighborhood, and the community at large, and the necessity for order, organization and government. Thus, in this period the whole field of social science (though not *as* science) is covered in elementary and concrete terms—geography, history, economics, civics. The formation of civic habits and the accumulation of civic experience by means of varied group activities bear an important relation to the instruction given in this cycle.

Grades 7–9: The junior cycle.—One important reason for grouping the first year of the high school with the two grammar grades is to give real continuity to elementary and secondary education. The work offered in both seventh and eighth grades and in the ninth grade should supply the pupil with a motive for continuing his schooling. This should be its relation to real life and experience.

The same aspects of life that have entered into the study of the earlier cycle should enter into this, but more prominently and intensively. Observation and activity should still afford a basis for the work. A well-organized course in community civics should be developed in the grammar grades—not a formal textbook study under that name but a real study of the children's own community, with observation, analysis, inference as the controlling method. National concepts should also enter into the study. Both European and American history should contribute to the child's understanding of life in these grammar grades, and geography has its relations to both history and civics as to life itself.

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[1] See U. S. Bu. of Educ. Bul., 1916, No. 28, pp. 11–14.

[2] See pages 175 and 176, above. Also U. S. Bu. of Educ., Bul., 1915, No. 17, and 1916, No. 28, pp. 12, 49, 50.

In the ninth year the course in general history should be dropped. If any history as such is offered in this year, it should either cover a shorter period or it should concentrate upon fewer phases of human development for commercial and industrial pupils; for example, upon commercial and industrial aspects of history, and especially of American history.

It is urged, however, that no history be offered in the ninth year, and that instead a course be developed that will grow naturally out of the work of the two preceding grades, and that will take as its point of departure the economic interest that is developing in practically all boys and girls at this age. It also should be based as fully as possible upon observation and experience. A course of this sort will be more difficult to formulate than a history course, because little suggestion can be obtained from existing textbooks, but its value will compensate for the effort.

The course should be based upon observation of the occupational activities of the community, the vocations of the children's parents, or those in which the children show conspicuous interest. It would come to include national and world-wide aspects of industry, trade, and transportation. It would afford opportunity to consider the geographical relations of commerce and industry (commercial geography) and the historical changes that have occurred in these fields (economic history). This would obviate the necessity for separate courses in these subjects later, while giving to their subject matter the spark of life. Withal the course should have a distinct and constant civic bearing, including not only certain elements of commercial law but such questions as the health of the worker, child labor, etc., and the necessity for Government control.

A course of this kind should not be limited to commercial and industrial pupils, but should have peculiar value for them.

Grades 10–12: The senior cycle.—For the senior cycle the general recommendations of the National Education Association committee on social studies are suggested as a guide.[1] It is urged that the principles there discussed be carefully considered in planning a reorganization of the Elyria High School.

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[1] U. S. Bu. of Educ. Bul., 1916, No. 28, pp. 35–56.

PUPIL ACTIVITIES.

ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

The school presents the essential conditions of community life; it should afford practice in community living. Class exercises fall short of their opportunity as a means of civic education unless they stimulate initiative in matters pertaining to group needs, cultivate a sense of personal responsibility for the group welfare, train in habits of cooperation, and by their very activities afford the starting point and the materials for much of the instruction.

Manual activities play a very small part in elementary education in Elyria. This is the more surprising in view of the elaborate shop equipment of the high school. The value of manual work lies not merely in the manual dexterity it develops but also in the basis of reality which it may afford for all the other work of the school and in the opportunity which it presents for group action. This is recognized in the special industrial class for boys, half of whose time is given to manual work. In the elementary schools a small amount of manual work is provided in the seventh and eighth grades. Drawing is taught throughout the grades, though the special teacher in this subject has recently been eliminated. Most of this work is stereotyped and artificial; it has little relation to the pupils' interests, to the life of the community, or to the other work of the school.

In Pittsburgh the children have made, in connection with their drawing work, working plans for the improvement of their dooryards and gardens; that is, they have used their drawing as a means for actual participation in a movement for community improvement. In Indianapolis several years ago the school children of the city wrote competitive compositions regarding the site of local historical interest most worthy of commemoration by a tablet. This involved local historical study. When the site was thus determined, the pupils in the art departments of the high schools made designs for the tablet. The design adjudged the best was adopted for the tablet that now marks the spot where Lincoln made an historical address.

The "busy work" of the children in the early grades of the Elyria schools is barren. Certain well-known devices are used (colored pasteboard disks, etc.) for teaching number and perhaps for sense development. But they are so used as to deaden, rather than to stimulate, initiative, cooperation, etc. Little opportunity is offered for natural life activities, such as children engage in, which might be utilized as a means of social education, and as a basis for the more formal instruction of the school.

The list of activities in which the children of the primary grades in Elyria engage outside of school is surprisingly long. As the children reach the upper grades the range of this outside activity broadens, and occupational activities enter in increasing proportion. The children enter more and more into the actual current of the community life. It is just at this time when the social studies, geography, history, civics, become a more definite part of the school work. But there is, in Elyria, little relation between what the children do in school and what they do outside of school. The schools of Elyria are working hard by certain methods to prepare for life, but they are doing practically nothing to participate in life and to make the life of reality educational. It is only by doing the latter that the former can be accomplished effectively.

Much of the child's activity outside of school is play activity. It is as much the business of the school to provide for organized play as for organized instruction. It has deep significance in relation to education for citizenship.

The playground supervisor and the special teacher of physical training were eliminated last year because of lack of funds. The elementary schools of the city are well provided with playground space. In some cases it has not been properly drained and is practically useless in wet weather. Playground apparatus is inadequate and it has been allowed to deteriorate. Ice skating ponds and tennis courts have been provided in some of the playgrounds. But there is no supervision of the play of the children except by the principal and teachers, and this consists of no more, in some cases, than "watching through the windows."

Until a year ago five of the school playgrounds were kept open in the summer and were in charge of a woman supervisor who organized folk dances and gave special attention to the girls. There was also a man supervisor for each playground to direct the activities of the boys. All of this was eliminated as one of the first acts of retrenchment. The importance of the public playground as a civic educational factor will increase with the growth of Elyria as an industrial center, and with the rapid increase of the foreign population.

The value of gardening as a direct means of civic education is no less than its value in other directions. It represents one of the somewhat limited number of activities in which children can make an appreciable contribution to the economic and civic progress of the community at the present time. The beautification of neighborhood and city, the utilization of idle land, the conservation of natural resources, an appreciation of industry and thrift, responsibility for the care of public property and of property belonging to others, cooperation with the departments of public health, public works, parks, etc.—these are among the things of civic importance for which gardening presents an opportunity.

A school savings-bank system has just been installed in the elementary schools of Elyria, and will later be extended to the high school. The civic value of this department of school activity, if wisely administered, is obvious.

In some of the elementary schools a good deal is done by principals and teachers to cultivate a real community spirit among the pupils. There is in no school any organized form of pupil government; but in some cases effort is made, with success, to develop in the pupils a sense of their own responsibility for the welfare of the school, the care of its property, and the safety of younger children.

This kind of civic influence may be illustrated by the McKinley School, where, perhaps, more of this sort of thing is done than in other schools. The principal is justly proud of the condition of the toilets and other parts of the basement, which are scrupulously clean and with no sign of defacement. This is in part due to excellent sanitary arrangements and to good janitor service; but the pupils have a recognized part in it. The principal gets her results by friendly talks with the boys and girls, and by the dissemination through the school of a wholesome family or community spirit, for which she must, of course, have the sympathetic cooperation of the teachers.

There is in this school an organization known as the "Cut-K-Cs" (clean-up-and-keep clean), composed of pupils of the three upper grades, with a captain. It looks after the school grounds in the spring, and in a measure polices the school. One boy is reported as having been transformed, by the captaincy of this organization, from a rather lawless individual into a leader with unusual genius for control.

There was formerly adjacent to this school a frog pond which made access to the building difficult in bad weather, and would, according to the principal, have made it difficult for the fire department to render effective service in case of fire. The boys of the school went to the chief of police and to members of the council and obtained a remedy.

At this school there is also, in the spring, what is known as "Burning Day." On this day a fireman from the city department is detailed to supervise the boys in burning the weeds from vacant areas in the neighborhood of the school. In this school there is, as in all others, a monthly fire drill.

Excellent relations have been established between the police and fire departments of the city and the public schools. The chiefs of both departments have taken pains to cultivate the friendship of the school children. They give occasional talks in the schools regarding public safety and the work of their departments, and otherwise cooperate in what is really a good piece of civic education. On the other hand, the children cooperate with the fire department in the spring "clean up."

These sporadic activities are among the most valuable civic-educational influences in the schools of Elyria. They should be organized and extended. They should also be connected with regular instructional work bearing on community life and based on observation. It should especially be related to such work as that suggested in the course of study for the sixth year, "Discussions * * * of the history of Elyria, its geography, beauties, industries, institutions." In other words, a real course in community civics. Organized work of this kind would be no small factor in justifying the city's slogan, "Elyria, the 100 per cent city."

HIGH SCHOOL ACTIVITIES,

The high school of Elyria offers an elaborate course of manual training, with well-equipped shops. A course in domestic science is offered for the girls. Although the boys learn the use of tools and the processes of the machine shop, there is no evidence that the work is related in any definite way to the actual industrial life of the community. Nor is it related to the other work of the school. There is, for example, a course in industrial history; but it is given by a teacher who has nothing to do with the manual work and who makes no point of connection with it. The economic and civic aspects of industry, which might find an effective point of departure in the school shops, receive practically no attention.

What the girls learn of homemaking has, of course, a definite civic value; but it is doubtful whether there is much organized effort to make them conscious of it.

The agricultural courses given in the school are too academic, and are not connected definitely with actual farming or gardening activities. Neither is sufficient attention given in these courses or in relation to them, to the community problems of rural life. The teacher in charge says that in one course some attention is given to cooperative activities, such as cooperative buying and selling; and that in another course, largely for girls who expect to teach, about two weeks at the end of the course are given to a discussion of community making.

The Elyria High School is not administered on a basis of pupil self-government. The principal expressed the opinion that the pupils are not prepared to assume any large measure of responsibility for the management of the school. It would not be safe, he thinks, to leave the study hall, for example, without a teacher in charge; chaos would reign. And yet the study hall was observed at certain periods when the 100 or 200 pupils present were quietly at work with no confusion, although the teacher in charge was absent from the room. This apparent refutation of the general statement of the principal may be explained by the personal influence of certain teachers. It was noted that the teachers whose influence was in the direction of pupil responsibility in the study hall are those who have developed the highest degree of teamwork in their regular classes.

If high-school pupils do not know how to assume responsibility for conduct, it suggests that they need training in this respect. If the high school has one obligation more than another, it is to prepare its pupils for participation in a democracy. Such training can be had only by practice. The high school should give experience in self-management in the largest measure possible, and should increase the opportunity for it as the pupils show themselves competent for it.

In the cases observed where there was a larger degree of self-management than usual there was a suggestion that the motive was perhaps chiefly that of personal loyalty to a particular teacher. This motive is much better than no motive, but it is better if right community conduct spring from a proper perception of the nature and meaning of community life. This can be developed effectively only by instruction based on observation, analysis, and inference. Instruction and practice in community life and community control are needed side by side in high-school life.

The allegation that high-school pupils are incapable of self-management is further refuted by the fact that in their own organizations they do exhibit capability, sometimes remarkable capability, for self-management. In practically every high school there are pupils with talent for leadership. Why boys and girls organized in a club almost unerringly discover their capable leaders and proceed to organize and manage their business effectively, while they need watching and have no sense of responsibility in a study hall or class, is a question worthy of consideration. It is doubtless largely a matter of motive. The club they recognize as theirs; while they have been brought up in the tradition that the responsibility for the class is the teacher's.

There are in the Elyria High School 11 pupil organizations that are managed more or less completely by the pupils with varying degrees of teacher supervision.

1. *Athletic association.*—Every pupil is a member. Meetings, two or three a year. Pupil officers elected by the association: President, vice president, secretary, pupil manager. The latter has charge of all contests, schedules, and tickets, and accompanies the teams on all trips. The principal acts as treasurer, and the coach is a teacher.

There are five school teams: Football, basket ball, track, tennis, and swimming. There are also class teams in football, basket ball, and track. Interclass and interschool games occur. Elyria High School belongs to the Northern Ohio High-School League.

The athletics is self-supporting, no contributions being sought from business men or others; $500 now in treasury. A movement is under way to acquire an athletic field. Alumni interested.

2. *Hi-Y clubs.*—Y. M. C. A. clubs for high-school boys: One for freshmen and sophomores with about 50 members, and one for juniors and seniors with about 70 members.

Purpose, as stated by a member: (1) "To clean up the school and the city common of all profane language, dirty stories, cliques of bad character, and the cigarette." (2) "To help the boys, through talks from business and professional men, public officials, and others, to decide on a life work." (3) Bible study. (4) Closer fellowship.

Meetings weekly at the Y. M. C. A., with a dinner and a talk by some man, followed by Bible study in charge of a high-school teacher. A number of social functions during the year.

Each club elects officers from its own members. Speakers are chosen or recommended by the boys. All business conducted by the boys. All work and social affairs planned and managed by committees. All service at meals under direction of a committee.

General supervision by boys' secretary of the Y. M. C. A. Bible class in charge of a high-school teacher. No other high-school supervision, though the principal and the superintendent attend many meetings and are in sympathy.

3. *Y-Hi clubs.*—Y. W. C. A. clubs for high-school girls: One for freshmen and sophomores with about 60 members, one for juniors and seniors with 35 members.

Purpose, as stated by a member: "To aid each member to be her best self; to help the other girl to be her best self; to promote true friendship; to maintain a good scholarship and democracy throughout the school; to have the right kind of a good time and engage in a definite social purpose."

Meetings weekly at the Y. W. C. A. similar to those of the Hi-Y clubs. Classes in "Christian citizenship" are mentioned. The social functions seem to be fewer than in the Hi-Y clubs.

Each club elects officers and has committees. Among the latter is a committee on community work, under which are mentioned missions and giving and grade-school visitation.

The Y. W. C. A. secretary has general supervision and directs Bible study. Usually a high-school teacher acts as general adviser.

4. *Beta Phi Club.*—About 50 members.

Purpose: "To develop the literary taste and abilities of the members. However, this purpose is not carried out, and there is talk of reorganization along the original lines."

Weekly meetings with literary programs. Two of three parties during the year.

Elects its own officers. "Is supposed to be under the general supervision of the faculty."

5. *English Club.*—With 58 members, who are "passing" in all subjects and have a grade of 90 or above in English.

Purpose: "To promote good English among the members, to spread the gospel of good English in the school, to create a taste for good literature."

Two meetings each month. Had charge of school Christmas entertainment and gave a Christmas mask.

Officers elected by the club. Committees arrange programs.

The English teachers are honorary members, and one of them always meets with the program committee.

6. "*The Elyrian.*"—The school paper. Nine literary editors, three artists, three business managers. All of these pupils of high standing, elected by the pupils but recommended by the English teachers, who have supervision.

7. *Orchestra.*—Has 23 members. Plays at all school functions, gives a concert on the first Monday of each month in the chapel, gives a public concert every year to raise money, and gives concerts in small neighboring towns.

In charge of the music director, who consults the members regarding music and engagements. A pupil is secretary and treasurer and manages all financial business. The principal has general supervision.

8. *Glee clubs.*—One for boys, one for girls; 20 members in former, 30 in the latter.

Practice once a week; sing in chapel; give one concert.

Pupil officers and committees to work with the music director who has charge.

Pupils may get credit for graduation for work in the orchestra and glee clubs, and for literary or society work when approved by the instructors.

It is obvious that such organizations as these present opportunity for the training of pupils in group action, in parliamentary procedure, and in modes of self-government. Doubtless they could do much more in these directions than they do. It is noteworthy that most of these organizations have in the foreground of purpose the interest of the school as a whole. The athletic and musical organizations especially tend to develop "school spirit." Pupil organizations become dangerous only when they divert attention from the fundamental interests, purposes, and ideals of the school, or when they undermine that democracy for which the American high school stands in principle.

It is said that there are no secret societies in the high school. There are two officially recognized school social functions each year, the senior-junior reception and the junior-senior reception. These are arranged for and managed by the two classes, with faculty supervision. It is said that other "parties" have frequently been given by and for boys and girls who attend high school, which have been called high-school affairs, but which have tended to interfere with, rather than to promote, the interests of the school. The school authorities have endeavored to make it plain to parents that responsibility for them does not rest with the school. The pupils themselves could do much more to regulate a situation of this kind than can be done by mere prohibition on the part of the authorities; and they doubtless would do it, if they were made conscious of the general social situation involved.

Organized debating has absolutely no place in the Elyria High School, as far as could be discovered. There are no debating classes or clubs of any sort. It is said that a former administration of the high school was positively opposed to them for some reason. As a means of civic training public discussion and debate have the highest value because of the stimulus to study public questions, and because of the opportunity presented for practice in team work, in the management of the necessary organization, in public speaking, and in the use of public documents and other source materials.

The Young Men's and Young Women's Christian Associations are among the most potent influences for good citizenship in Elyria. The work they are doing for the boys and girls of the high school, as well as for young men and women outside of school, is most commendable. It is unfortunate, however, that a high school as well equipped in other respects as that in Elyria should be wholly dependent upon these associations for the physical training of its pupils. All high-school gymnasium work is done in the gymnasiums of the two associations, under the direction of their physical directors. The work is elective, and at present about 50 boys are enrolled. The number of girls enrolled was not stated. The board of education pays to the association $2 for each pupil enrolled.

The Y. M. C. A. also attempts, with a fair measure of success, to provide for another need which the school itself should look after more carefully. This is in providing a place during the lunch period for boys who do not go home. These are principally boys who attend the high school from surrounding towns and rural districts. The Y. M. C. A. has a rural club for such boys, who take lunch together at the association building. The Y. W. C. A. does something similar for the girls.

About one-third of the high-school pupils are tuition pupils, which means that they come from outside the city limits. The care of these pupils during their idle time while in town is a matter of supreme importance. There are in Elyria certain well known loafing places which threaten the citizenship of boys who come within their influence, and which tend to counteract whatever civic training the schools may afford. The Y. M. C. A. is doing a great work in this particular direction; but the high school should do even more, not by formal prohibitions against these places, but by providing an effective substitute.

In the first place, the lunch period of an hour and a half is unnecessarily long. An hour is ample even for pupils who go home to lunch. Those who lunch at the school or at the near-by Y. M. C. A. have time on their hands. But the long lunch period would not be so bad if the school provided adequate means of spending it profitably as well as enjoyably. The school gynasium should be a valuable asset in this connection, turned into an informal recreation room at this time. So also would a well-equipped library and reading room, with current literature, newspapers, and books, and a place, in the gymnasium or elsewhere, for games of the quieter sort and for conversation. All of this should be under supervision, but the kind of supervision that allows large freedom and the opportunity for self-government.

The high school has a lunch room which is operated by two members (pupils) of the domestic science department selected by the domestic science teacher. Milk, cocoa, soup, and sometimes other articles of food are provided at small cost. The proceeds are turned over to the principal, but the girls themselves keep the accounts. About 200 take lunch in the room, though all do not buy. The girls who manage the lunch room receive school credit for it.

Of the 16 credits required for graduation from the Elyria High School, one may be secured by accessory or home tasks. The list of such tasks for which credit may be received is rather extensive and of wide range (see Course of Study, 1914–15, pp. 32, 33). An examination of the records of 84 boys and girls who have received such credits shows that the following activities have been accepted for from one-eighth of a credit to an entire credit:

Clerking in store, farm work (sometimes stated in general terms and sometimes as specific farm tasks), working in shops, mowing lawn regularly through the season, care of an automobile, regularly preparing meals, making beds, doing the home laundry work, care of horses and cows, poultry raising, drafting in factory, operating machines, nursing, office work, building, painting, shingling, acting as time keeper, selecting and testing seed corn for 5 acres, sign painting, bookkeeping, sewing, teaching basketry, canning fruit, entering hat in domestic contest, work in mill, making cement steps, making tennis court, travel with description, work on a lake boat, attending furnace in a school building, work in canning factory.

This list is not exhaustive. In some cases vague statements are made, such as "worked every day in the week," "home work," etc. The list does not include regular music lessons or work in the glee clubs and choruses, for which a large number of pupils received credit. The largest number of credits was giving for clerking in store (27 pupils), and the next for farm work (16 pupils). Next to these come mowing lawns, shop work, and home work (5 pupils each).

An attempt has been made to safeguard the giving of credits for this outside work by requiring advance approval from superintendent or principal, by requiring vouchers from instructors or parents or employers, by inspection of work done, or by requiring an essay on the subject of the work done. It is difficult to see, however, why high-school credit should be given for some of the things done. Why should credit be given for the mere fact that a boy or a girl has mowed a lawn every week for an entire season? If credit is to be given for outside work it should depend absolutely upon what the pupil gets out of the work in educational values, and this can hardly be safely determined by the mere written statement of an employer or even of a parent.

The country boy who is taking a course in agriculture in the high school should find a laboratory in the farm on which he works, but the educational value of his farm work will depend upon how the school uses his actual farm experience in connection with the instruction given in the school, and also upon the supervision he receives in his farm work from some agricultural or gardening supervisor provided by the school. The farmer has little time to give organized instruction to the boy, even if he knew how to do so; in most cases he does not. The same thing is true of the boy or girl who finds employment during the summer, or at other times in the commercial or industrial life of the community. The school may do more harm than good by merely giving credit for work done outside; but if it uses the experience gained by the boy or girl in the course of such employment as a basis for its own educational work it will make the education of the youth vastly more vital.

THE PUBLIC LIBRARY.

Elyria has a good public library of 30,000 volumes, which seems to be kept very well up to date by the annual acquisition of new books in all fields. But it is badly housed, and at the present time is serving the schools and the community only to a slight extent. The terms fixed by the donor of the building have prevented the library board from selling it or devoting it to other uses, thereby perpetuating its use long after it has been outgrown. The building and site are said to be worth about $25,000 or $30,000. There is an endowment of $10,000. The first floor of the building is rented to the electric light company for office use. And until the past year (1916) the board of education has made an annual appropriation of $4,000 to the library.

The shortage of funds for public-school purposes last year led the board of education to discontinue its appropriation for the library. This resulted in placing the library on a subscription basis, an individual membership fee of $1 a year being charged for the privilege of drawing one book per week, and a family membership fee of $3 a year for the privilege of drawing three books of fiction and two others per week. The card holders fell at once from 4,000 to 400. Moreover, the library staff was reduced from three assistants on full time to two on half time, in addition to the librarian, who gives all her time as formerly. The hours during which the library is open have also been reduced materially. Teachers formerly held cards which entitled them to 10 books at a time for the use of their classes; now they have no privileges other than those of regular members. Boxes of books (traveling libraries) were formerly sent to the grade schools and exchanged two or three times a year; but this is no longer done.

It seems remarkable that a city enjoying the reputation for public spirit possessed by Elyria, and as generous as it has been in contributing large sums of money for public enterprises, should have allowed the almost complete, even if only temporary, destruction of the usefulness of its library for the lack of a few thousand dollars.

It is said that the legal technicalities preventing the disposal of the old library building are about to be overcome, and that a site has been selected for a new building. The librarian, who was trained in the New York Public Library and served there and who was librarian at Oberlin for several years, is enthusiastic about plans for the future in spite of the discouragements of the present. In her report for 1915–16 she recommends the development of a branch system. There is great need for a branch in the industrial and foreign district of the city. Practically no provision has been made by the city for the peculiar educational needs of this section of the city. Through the cooperation of Jewish citizens a beginning has been made in the collection of a library of Yiddish books. Similar enterprise in behalf of other foreign groups is desirable.

The librarian reports that the library is used by elementary school children only to a very slight extent. The discontinuance of the box libraries for the grade schools was a misfortune, for they had an important influence on the reading of the children. Yet these box libraries were never made as useful as they might have been. There were not enough books to supply the demand. The teachers had nothing to do with the selection of the books for the box libraries. No attempt seems to have been made to select books relative to the work that was being done in the schools by the children.

The high school has a very inadequately equipped library of its own. Under any circumstances, however, the public library should be in a sense an annex of the high school. The public librarian reports that the high-school pupils do use the library to a considerable extent, especially in connection with the work in English and history, which confirms the reports obtained at the school. The public library should perform a much larger and more definite service in the education of the youth of Elyria than it has ever performed. With the erection of the new building, it should be possible to develop a plan of intimate cooperation.

In connection with the community study recommended by this report for the schools of Elyria, one feature of the new library might well be a department devoted to the history, industries, and social and political life of Elyria and Lorain County. Such department should have not only all available literature relating to local life, but should be arranged for the display of exhibits illustrative of that life. The civic value of such department might be made very great not only for the schools but for the entire population.

EDUCATION OF THE FOREIGNER.

A new Elyria is growing up west of the river, of which the old Elyria seems hardly conscious. This is the factory district. Its population consists of recently arrived foreigners, chiefly of Slavic extraction. This new part of Elyria will inevitably modify, is already modifying, the community life of the city as a whole. The importance of the problem which this new population presents can hardly be overestimated. It is the problem of assimilating the new population into the citizenship of the community to the mutual advantage of both.

The problem is in large measure an educational one. So far, Elyria has done little to meet the situation. There is no school in this western district of the city. At present, these foreign children are concentrated almost entirely in the Franklin School, with a few in the Gates School. In the Franklin School almost 100 of them are reported, four-fifths of them in the first three grades. Why there are not more in the upper grades is not clear, but it may suggest elimination because of retardation; for many of these non-English-speaking children are overage for their grades. These non-English-speaking children are enrolled in the same classes with the native born, and are subjected to the same instruction. The foreign children are unable to keep up, and the native-born children are kept back by their slower classmates.

Until a school building is provided for the district occupied by the foreign population, separate classes should be organized in the Franklin School for the foreign children in the lower grades until they have acquired facility in the use of the English language and are able to compete on favorable terms with the American children. But there is the greatest urgency for a school in their own district. A temporary schoolhouse has been suggested, but it has not met with the approval of the board of education. A course of study should be developed that is more closely adapted to the needs of this group of children. The aim should be to keep then in school as long as possible and to fit them with care for American citizenship. It must be remembered that these children afford one of the most effective channels through which to reach their parents. Instruction should be given them as soon as they are able to understand it, which they will take home and discuss there. It should include work in community civics adapted to their own conditions of life.

Excellent but inadequate work is done for this foreign population by the social settlement in the district, and by the night school conducted there under the auspices of the board of education. Such evening classes for adult foreigners should be increased, especially for teaching English and citizenship, and arrangements should be made with the employers whereby more general and more regular attendance upon these classes may be secured.

Another problem is presented by foreigners, many of them girls and young women, who live in surrounding towns but come into Elyria to work. Exact information is not available on this point, but there is evidence that there are many foreign girls who come into Elyria every day by electric lines and work in industries where the conditions of work and life are not always good. It may seem that Elyria has no responsibility educationally for those who live outside of her limits. But these girls (and men too) work in and for Elyria; the industries in which they are employed belong to Elyria; they contribute to the community life of Elyria. Some of them will marry and remain in Elyria. The community life of Elyria is not limited to its own boundaries, but ramifies into and is influenced by that of the surrounding region in a remarkable manner. There is a civic problem here of the utmost importance and interest. If the public-school authorities can not handle it effectively alone, they should at least cooperate with the Y. W. C. A. and the Y. M. C. A. and other available agencies, first, in securing the best possible working conditions for this class of workers, and, second, in securing the cooperation of employers in the organization of industrial clubs and civic clubs for both young men and young women, through which a considerable amount of instruction could be given.

CONCLUSIONS.

1. The schools of Elyria make little provision for organized constructive training for the responsibilities of citizenship, except as a by-product of formal studies.
2. The course of study and the methods of instruction greatly overemphasize mental discipline as a means of preparing for life, while failing to make the present citizenship of the children educational.
3. Definite, direct instruction in regard to the civic relations and the agencies of civic life should be given in both elementary and high schools to a much larger extent than is now the case. It should be based as largely as possible upon observation and experience. But the entire curriculum should make its contribution to the civic education of the pupil.
4. The single textbook occupies a too controlling place throughout the elementary and high schools.
5. The educational value of pupil activities, both in and out of school. especially from the standpoint of education for citizenship, is not realized nor fully appreciated in either elementary or high school.
6. The teachers of social studies are greatly handicapped by lack of library equipment and material aids to instruction. But they

are apparently unappreciative of the wealth of material aids available and that could be accumulated largely by the pupils themselves to their own profit and interest.

7. The public library should be, but is not at present, a valuable asset in the civic education of school schildren and of the community at large.

8. Little provision is made to help and supervise the teachers in service. It is peculiarly important that such provision be made in relation to the vital work of civic education.

9. There is some exceptionally good history instruction in the high school. But in general the social studies of the high school are not organized or taught in a way to develop their full intrinsic civic value or to meet the special needs of distinctive groups of pupils.

10. The civic welfare of Elyria demands prompt provision of adequate and appropriate educational advantages for the recently arrived and rapidly growing foreign population.

11. A thorough reorganization of the course of study in both elementary and high schools is desirable.

RECOMMENDATIONS.

It is recommended—

1. That a committee be appointed by the superintendent of schools to reorganize the course of study in both elementary and high schools, with a view to making civic education a more conspicuous aim. Especial attention should be given to the continuity of high-school work with that of the elementary school and to the cycle plan of organization. The committee should include teachers as well as supervisors of both elementary and secondary schools.

2. That community civics be made definitely a part of the work of the grammar grades or junior high school.

3. That special attention be given to the development of a course of social study for the ninth year (first year high school) along the lines suggested on page 193.

4. That during the time necessary for the development of the said ninth-year course, a course in community civics be given also in the ninth year. The ninth-year pupils will not have had community civics in the grammar grades. This means that for one year, while the new ninth-year course is being developed, community civics would be taught in both grammar grades and first-year high school.

5. That a department of social studies be created in the high school, including history with the other social studies.

6. That a head of the department of social studies be appointed who would have supervision over the organization and teaching of the social studies in the grammar school as well as in the high school (junior and senior cycles).

It is probable that a competent person for this position can be selected from the present high-school staff of teachers, and that by relieving her of a part of her class work, time could be found for her supervisory duties, without greatly increasing the expense. Some additional compensation should be given, however, for this supervisory work.

7. That frequent conferences be held for the teachers of the social studies in the high school and grammar grades (or junior and senior high schools) for the discussion of organization, methods, material aids, available literature, etc. These conferences should be under the immediate direction of the head of the department of social studies.

8. That the teachers of social studies be provided with much-needed equipment, both in library facilities and material aids.

9. That closer and more effective cooperation be established between the public schools and the public library.

10. That the special industrial class for boys be provided with better equipment (furniture, books, pictures, etc.), and that the teacher of this class be included in the conferences of teachers of social studies.

11. That separate classes for non-English-speaking children be organized in the early grades of the Franklin school.

12. That classes or clubs for debate be organized in the high school, with pupil management under faculty supervision; and that all debates, discussions, and business meetings be conducted according to correct parliamentary procedure.

13. That a large degree of pupil participation in school management be accorded.

14. That evening classes for adult foreigners, to include instruction in American citizenship, be organized as rapidly as possible, and that steps be taken to secure effective cooperation in the matter from employers of foreign labor.

15. That the community center and community forum be developed, and the use of the school buildings for this purpose be granted.

16. That supervisors of play activities be reinstated, the summer playgrounds reopened, and the playground apparatus be supplemented to meet actual needs.

Chapter IX.

SCHOOL AND HOME GARDENING.

FARM PRODUCTS OF LORAIN COUNTY.

Lorain County is a county of cities and villages. In 1910 the total population of the cities of Lorain, Elyria, Oberlin, and Amherst was 50,179, and that of all other incorporated villages and of rural districts in the county was only 25,858. Because of this large city population the farmers have excellent local markets. A comparison of the farm products of the county shows that general farming, cereal, forage, and live-stock production rank highest. Specialized and intensive cultivation of vegetables for the markets of the cities of the county has not been developed. The farms are large; and computed on the basis of cash value given in the 1910 Census, the county produces only $5.83 worth of vegetables per capita, or a very small proportion of the local consumption. Vegetables are high in price because of the lack of local production. Prices are without doubt regulated to a large extent by the large city markets in Cleveland, not far away. A good idea of the status of vegetable growing in the county may be obtained from the following tables of size of farms and cash value of the principal crops:

Size of farms in Lorain County.

Under 3 acres	7	100–174 acres	760
3–9 acres	233	175–259 acres	205
10–19 acres	256	260–499 acres	56
20–49 acres	750	1,000 acres or over	1
50–99 acres	1,291	500–999 acres	7

Money value of principal farm products of Lorain County.

Cereals	$1,448,097
Other grains and seeds	12,915
Hay and forage	916,290
Vegetables	443,654
Fruits and nuts	218,892
All other crops	167,719
Total	**3,207,567**

CHARACTER OF THE SOIL OF ELYRIA.

The land area of 4,075 acres within the corporate limits of Elyria is ideal for gardening. With the exception of the cuts made by the two river valleys, the area is comparatively level. Three slight elevations run across the town, marking the original positions of the lake front. The soil is generally fertile, although it differs in the several sections of the city. The level plain, much of which has been recently used for grain farming, is heavy; the tops of the lake-front ridges are lighter, and ideal garden soil is to be found on the lots near the rivers. This is especially true where the river banks are lowest along the West Branch.

Even in its present condition, practically all of the land in the city is well adapted to vegetable growing, and with soil improvement, including drainage on the level areas, very large crops might be produced. During most seasons, the rainfall is ample for the production of crops, if the moisture is conserved by cultivation. To irrigate a garden for any length of time would reduce the profit greatly, for water charges are made at the meter rate of 20 cents per thousand gallons.

LAND AVAILABLE FOR HOME GARDENING.

Although the industrial progress of the city has been marked, land values have not increased rapidly. There is still much room for expansion, and the building lots are of generous size. The majority of the lots range from 40 by 120 feet to 50 by 150 feet, although some of those in the Gates School district are smaller, and the older homes on Middle and Washington Avenues have much larger grounds. Very few apartments have been built. In 1910, there were 3,239 dwellings for housing 3,519 families. Only 280 families were then living in apartments or in dwellings with other families. The population increased from 14,825 in 1910 to 18,618 in 1916, and the increase in number of dwellings seems to have kept pace with that of population.

The only section of the city that might be considered congested is the Hungarian village, to the west of the Fair Grounds. The streets in the older part of the city are planted with shade trees, and many of the homes are well decorated with flowering vines and shrubbery. The newer section still lacks these attractions which help to make a homelike neighborhood. There are few alleys, and back lots are comparatively free from shade that would interfere with productive gardening.

The school districts were used as units in studying the availability of land for gardening (see table on p. 212). Reports were received from 1,431 children. Of those only 75 lived in flats, tenements, or apartments where the land must be used by two or more families; practically all other children have some garden space, and in many cases the space is large. The space available for gardening in the home back yard was measured by 986 children. The average number of square feet per child was found to be 4,791.

The only available map of the city had not been corrected to date and the two districts omitted were not platted in house lots at the time the map was made. The house lots of all 40 blocks were measured, showing that there is an average of 1.64 acres of available garden land per block. If this land were cultivated to produce as low an average as 1 cent per square foot of vegetable foods, the total production per block would be $714.38. With well-directed, careful work, this amount can be increased tenfold. The public-school teachers stated that nearly all children could have a home garden and that it would be comparatively easy to find vacant lots for all children who have no home ground. Large tracts for school gardens are also available and could be secured for small rentals. The grounds of most of the schools are large, but this land would serve the greatest number by being left for playgrounds.

Available land for gardening.

Schools.	Children reporting.	Living in flats, tenements, and apartment.	Size of building lots in the district.	Children who measure back-yard space.	Average number of square feet of back-yard space per child.	Number of blocks studied from map of city.	Average number of acres per block.[1]
Hamilton	193	4	40 by 120	170	5,517	9	2.01
Franklin	340	30	50 by 150	247	4,381	12	1.94
McKinley	296	19	50 by 130	158	2,696	3	.83
Garford	58	0	40 by 135	28	4,750	(2)	(2)
Ridge	120	7	50 by 130	90	8,444	6	1.36
Gates	222	8	20 by 120	137	4,016	10	2.07
Jefferson	202	7	50 by 150	147	3,738	(2)	(2)
Total	1,431	75	....	986	4,791	40	1.64

[1] Measurements made by high-school students in the mechanical drawing classes.

[2] Not platted.

COST OF VEGETABLE FOODS FOR AN ELYRIA FAMILY.

In order to determine the cost of vegetables to Elyria families, the place of production, competition of salesmen, and methods of purchase of vegetables and small fruits were considered. These facts have a direct influence on the price of the foods to the consumer, and the attempt has been made to obtain reliable figures from three sources. Nine grocers were interviewed; questionnaires were sent to 280 housewives, and the public-school teachers were asked to investigate and report on the cost of vegetables, both canned and fresh, used in one year by a family of five persons.

A study of the grocers' reports shows a very great variation in the place and method of purchase. The large stores in the center of town obtain their supplies principally through commission houses, and small stores in outlying sections of the city purchase largely from the farmers. An average of the answers of all grocers who reported shows that 38 per cent of the vegetables sold are purchased of farmers and 62 per cent are furnished to the storekeepers by commission men. The city of Elyria does not have a farmers' market. The retail price of vegetables is fixed as a rule by the grocers. City ordinances permit farmers to sell farm produce without a license, but the number of farmers who take advantage of the privilege in a systematic way seems to be very small. In seasons of oversupply of certain crops, the farmers sell directly to the homes, but such selling is intermittent. The grocers are unanimous in stating that from 66 to 75 per cent of all vegetables consumed in the city are sold through their stores. On this point the average of the housewives' statements gives 65 per cent to the grocers, 11.4 per cent to the farmers, and 22.6 per cent as grown in the home garden.

Although the individual estimates of costs of vegetables varied, the averages of the reports of grocers, housewives, and teachers are remarkably uniform. The grocers' estimates averaged $138.91 as the cost of canned and fresh vegetables for a family of five persons for one year; the housewives' estimates averaged $135.05; and the teachers' estimates averaged $133.57. When compared with other food studies, these figures seem high, but averages here given were taken directly from statements received from the sources above mentioned. A similar study was made in Richmond, Ind., in April, 1916. Berries were included with the canned and fresh vegetables, and the total cost for a family of five persons for one year was estimated by grocers and housewives of Richmond at $138.88.

OCCUPATION OF THE SCHOOL CHILDREN OUT OF SCHOOL HOURS.

Under the direction of the teachers, 685 boys and 741 girls of the fourth, fifth, sixth, seventh, and eighth grades reported on their occupations after school hours, on Saturday, and during the summer vacation. These occupations were classified. Those requiring a definite amount of time each day, such as delivering papers, work in stores, etc., were listed as regular employment. It should be noted that many of those require only small portions of children's time. Those that were indefinite and irregular, such as odd jobs, picking of berries, etc., were listed as irregular employment. The children also stated how many hours they were engaged in home duties per week and whether or not they were paid for their home work. The reports of boys and girls are shown in separate tables.

Boys.—Of the 685 boys reporting (see table on page 215), 186 claim to have some occupation after school and on Saturday. The occupations of 40 of these boys were classified as irregular, while those of the other 147 were of such a nature as to constitute regular duties. Only 27 per cent of all the school boys have occupations that add money to the family treasury, and only 21 per cent had regular occupations. During the summer vacation a larger number of boys are engaged in gainful occupations. Of the 302 who are employed, 218 have regular duties and 84 work only a part of the time. In the summer, 44 per cent of the boys help the home income by earning money and in 32 per cent this earning is regular. The average weekly earnings of the boys after school and on Saturday was $1.74, and the average during the summer vacation was $2.28 per week.

With the elimination of agricultural activities of the home, there seems to be very little home work for the city boy. The care of a furnace in winter and the mowing of lawns in summer are the only possible "man's work" in many city homes. When these occupations become the duties of the boy they require only a few minutes two or three times per day or a few hours once or twice per week. Forty-one per cent, or 280, of the boys in the upper grades of the Elyria elementary schools state that they have absolutely no home employment. The average time that boys are employed at home is 43 minutes per day. One hundred and eighty-five boys receive some pay for home work.

Girls.—Of the 741 girls reporting, 40 claim some after school or Saturday occupation outside the home by which money is earned. In the case of 24, this employment requires a definite time each day, while 16 worked at irregular intervals. The average earnings during the school term were $1.01 per week. In the summer vacation, 112 girls had gainful employment, that of 63 being classified as regular and of 49 as irregular. The average earnings per week during the summer were $1.71. Two hundred and seven girls had definite duties at home, requiring an average of six hours per week. If it is assumed that the girls who work at home and in gainful occupations outside the home are in all cases different individuals, there are then left 422 girls who have no employment whatsoever.

Number of children employed—By schools.

BOYS.

School.	After school.					In vacation.					
	Total number reporting.	Total number employed.	Regular employment.	Irregular employment.	Average earnings per week of those employed.	Total number employed.	Regular employment.	Irregular employment.	Average earnings per week of those employed.	Number having definite home work.	Average number hours home work per week of those reporting any definite home duties.
Hamilton	91	25	19	6	$1.86	62	36	26	$1.79	30	6½
Franklin	169	52	39	13	1.85	93	65	28	2.59	42	4½
McKinley	152	52	41	11	2.03	68	49	19	3.26	37	3½
Garford	29	3	2	0	1.50	4	4	0	1.88	7	7½
Ridge	56	4	4	0	1.36	5	5	0	1.66	15	4
Gates	98	29	26	3	2.11	29	24	5	2.54	28	3
Jefferson	90	22	15	7	1.60	41	35	6	2.26	26	6½
Total	685	186	146	40	1.74	302	218	84	2.28	185	5

GIRLS.

Hamilton	102	1	1	0	$3.00	23	8	15	$1.42	32	6
Franklin	171	13	13	0	1.09	20	15	5	2.28	30	6½
McKinley	143	5	5	0	1.05	37	22	15	1.54	53	5
Garford	29	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	1.00	7	9
Ridge	60	2	2	0	1.00	7	3	4	1.37	21	4
Gates	124	5	2	3	.59	11	4	7	1.70	29	4½
Jefferson	112	14	1	13	.36	13	10	3	2.66	35	7
Total	741	40	24	16	1.01	112	63	49	1.71	207	6

Occupations of boys.

Occupation.	After school.	In vacation.	Occupation.	After school.	In vacation.
Selling newspapers	88	64	As elevator boy		1
Work in stores	31	49	As errand boy	3	2
Work in factories	2	9	Shopwork		3
Work on farms		35	Caddying	2	4
As delivery boy	31	43	As stable boy	1	2
Printing	1		Selling vegetables	1	3
As janitor	3		Selling seed	1	
Carrying meals	7	1	Emptying ashes	2	2
Work in restaurant		2	Garage work		1
Work on ice wagon		1	Distribute handbills		3
Picking berries	1	5	Office boy		1
As messenger boy		1	Apprentice brick mason		1
Mowing lawn	1	39	Driving team		1
Boxing	1		Other occupations not enumerated	8	24
As usher in theater	1				
Bowling alley	1		Total	186	302
Garden work		3			
Driving cows		2			

The total number of boys reporting was 685.

Occupations of girls.

Occupation.	After school.	In vacation.	Occupation.	After school.	In vacation.
Housework	6	19	Carrying wash	1	3
Store work	12	23	Work on farm		2
As errand girl	4	17	Work in shop		4
Nursing	4	13	Work in laundry	1	1
Carrying lunches	8		Wrapping gum	1	
Picking berries		16	Canvassing	1	
Office work		1	Selling candy		1
Crocheting		2	Other occupations	2	6
Catching fish to sell		1	Total	40	112
Selling tickets in theater		1			
Gardening		2			

The total number of girls reporting was 741.

Juvenile court offenses from the several municipalities of Lorain County.

City.	Population in 1910.	Per cent of total population.	Percentage of juvenile court cases
Lorain	28,883	38.0	57.2
Elyria	14,825	19.5	18.8
Oberlin	4,365	5.7	11.3
Amherst	2,106	2.8	5.2
Other incorporated villages and rural districts	25,858	34.0	7.5
Total in county	76,037	100.0	100.0

RELATION OF IDLENESS TO JUVENILE OFFENSES.[1]

Since the establishment of the Lorain County juvenile court April 14, 1913, official cases have been filed against 247 individuals. A person having more than one case charged against him has been counted but once. Of those before the court, 177 were boys and 70 were girls. That juvenile delinquency has increased with centralization of population is shown conclusively by the fact that 57.2 per cent of the cases were from Lorain City, 18.8 per cent from Elyria, 11.3 per cent from Oberlin, 5.2 per cent from Amherst, and 7.5 per cent from all other incorporated villages and rural districts. When the 1910 census was compiled, the population of the four cities was 50,179, while that of the other villages and rural districts was 25,857, and yet the relation of juvenile court cases is 92.5 per cent for the cities and 7.5 per cent for the villages and country districts.

In studying the individual official cases, the causes leading up to the offenses have been more interesting than the cases themselves. Of the 247 cases before the court, the cause of 155 was given as bad associations, gangs, or idleness; 68 per cent were brought up before the court through drink of parents, poor home conditions, or desertion. In more than half of these last cases, the children were very young and the fault rested with the parent and not the child. Desire for adventure was given as the contributing cause for court action against 10 children, drink for 5, immorality and degeneracy for 6, and stubbornness for 3. Idleness, which has fostered the formation of bad associations, has been the cause of 62.75 per cent of all the cases recorded and of 86.5 per cent of those that were clearly the fault of the child.

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[1] The juvenile court judge and chief probation officer cooperated in the preparation of this section. Both spent much time in studying and tabulating the court records. A part of this section is an abstract of their report.

Causes of juvenile court cases.

	Children.
Desertion or poor home conditions	68
Idleness, bad associations, gangs	155
Adventure	10
Drink	5
Immorality	3
Degeneracy	3
Stubbornness	3
Total	247

Aside from the definite court records, the juvenile court officials have furnished the following additional information:

The foregoing official cases represent only a part of the work of the juvenile court officials. During the same period there have been about 600 unofficial complaints covering truancy, minor offenses against law and order, and slight acts of misconduct which have not been taken up by the court, but have required personal interviews and official calls by the probation officer. No official record is made of these minor offenses, and only cases of severe and semisevere nature are called to the court's attention. Of these trivial crimes and petty offenses, the probation officer estimates that not over 25 are from the strictly rural districts, 100 from incorporated villages, and the balance of 475 from the larger villages and cities of the county.

The number of official cases increases with the age of the child. As the child becomes older, the offenses become more serious, and the court must deal more severely with them in the interest of law and order. From birth to the 14th year (see table on page 218) only 95 cases are recorded, and of these 48 were the fault of parents or guardians. From 14 to 18 the records show 152 official cases. In the case of the unofficial offenses, the larger number, 450, are committed in the 11th, 12th, and 13th years. In the majority of these cases the child is not conscious of wrongdoing and, what to society is a misdemeanor, is to him only the spirit of play. It is interesting to note in this connection that the height of the unofficial court offenses coincides exactly with the height of the period of psychological interest in gardening.

Ages of the children brought to the attention of the juvenile court.

Ages of children.	Official cases.	Unofficial cases.
Birth to 10 years of age, inclusive	49	60
11, 12, and 13 years of age	46	450
14 and 15 years of age	72	60
16 and 17 years of age	80	30
Total	247	600

EFFORTS TO PROMOTE GARDENING.

The many gardens at Elyria homes and the comparatively large number owned and cared for by the children themselves may be attributed in great measure to the work of the members of the Elyria Home Garden Association. Very few of the children, however, do garden work to earn money. This association was organized in March, 1907, and its aims are (1) to make waste places of the city useful and beautiful; (2) to give knowledge of gardening for pleasure and profit; (3) to train children to cultivate the soil and to call attention to the educational and economic value of soil cultivation.

For the first few years prizes were given for the best home gardens and committees from the association visited and judged the gardens for which prizes were claimed. During two garden seasons a trained gardener was employed to oversee the preparation of the soil and to give advice to those who entered the contest. As the city expanded over a wider area, it was impossible for the visiting committee to give the time required to visit the gardens of all contestants. The prize contests were then reorganized. A fair was held in the height of the productive season and prizes awarded for the best displays of flowers and vegetables. These garden fairs are usually held in the Young Men's Christian Association or some other centrally located building. Ninety-six exhibitors took part in the contest in 1915.

The Home Garden Association has also distributed packages of seeds to the school children, 14,000 packages being sold to them in 1915 at 1 cent each. Because of the unfavorable weather conditions in 1916, the exhibition contest was not held, and the prize money was used to purchase 700 flowering bulbs, which were given to the schools for school-ground decoration.

AGRICULTURAL INTERESTS OF THE HOMES THAT MIGHT BECOME SCHOOL-DIRECTED PROJECTS.

Of the 1,431 children, 435 have gardens of their own at home.[1] At 770 of the homes of school children reporting the parents or children made a garden last year. It was impossible to get an exact report on the products of these gardens, but the average money value seems to have been small, for the gardens were planted to crops which take much ground,[1] and companion and succession cropping was not practiced.

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[1] Few of the children consider gardening as an employment bringing financial returns. Many of them seem to have limited their garden work to the demands of the prize contests.

Poultry was kept by either parents or children in 185 homes, pigeons in 48, and rabbits in 91.

Agricultural interests of the home that might become school-directed projects.

Schools.	Children reported.			Parents or children's gardens.	Children who own a garden.	Other home interests.		
	Boys.	Girls.	Total.			Poultry.	Pigeons.	Rabbits.
Hamilton	91	102	193	116	65	24	5	13
Franklin	169	171	340	150	86	21	8	16
McKinley	152	144	296	151	91	32	7	19
Garford	29	29	58	24	21	7	1	2
Ridge	60	60	120	74	34	22	4	16
Gates	98	124	222	124	67	41	13	9
Jefferson	90	112	202	131	71	38	10	16
Total	689	742	1,431	770	435	185	48	91

LABOR INCOME OF ELYRIA WORKINGMEN.

The earning power of the wage-earning members of a family has much to do with the possibility of educating the children of that family. If this wage-earning power is low, the chances are that the children will be obliged to leave school to become wage earners before they have received sufficient education to make efficient citizens. The labor income has increased during the past year, but in most cases it has not kept pace with the increasing prices of commodities and the cost of living. In the poorer families any money that can be earned by the healthful, educative employment of the children during vacation hours will tend to increase the length of school attendance of the children of that family. The following table of labor incomes of workingmen has been compiled from information supplied by the leading employers of labor in Elyria:

Unskilled labor, lowest type, 10 or 11 hour day	$2.25
Unskilled labor, average type, 10-hour day	3.00
Unskilled labor, higher type, 10-hour day	4.00
Mechanics, 8-hour day	4.00 to 5.00
Bricklayers, 70 to 80 cents per hour, 8-hour day	5.60 to 6.40
City employees, many of low efficiency, 8-hour day	3.00

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[1] In Middle Western towns vegetable gardens are usually planted on field-crop plans and yield less than one-third of the amount that could be produced by intensive methods.

NUMBER OF CHILDREN WHO LEAVE SCHOOL BEFORE COMPLETING THE EIGHT GRADES.

The reports of school principals show that an average of about 20 pupils, nearly 1 per cent of the enrollment, leave school each year. The principal cause of leaving is loss of interest in school work or financial necessity. Considering the size of the city, this number is not large. The grade schools lack in special interests and activities that hold the "hand-minded" child. This work is specially featured in the high school, but that is too far away to seem attainable to the retarded pupil, especially at the times when he fails to gain promotion. Only a small number leave because of financial necessity, but it is important to make an effort to continue the school life of the few by aiding them to earn while still in school. The recognition by the schools of the special active interest of children would do much to retain those who leave school because of loss of interest.

BOYHOOD OCCUPATIONS OF SUCCESSFUL BUSINESS MEN OF ELYRIA.

Mr. Patterson, president of the National Cash Register Co., of Dayton, Ohio, makes the following statement in regard to the starting of children's gardens by that company:

> After an investigation of the successes and failures of the men who had been boys with me, I was impressed by the fact that there had been scarcely a failure among those boys who had been responsible for some farm or garden "chores." I decided that in a very rough neighborhood I would make the experiment of using the surplus energy of the boys in practical garden work and let them have the products of their steady work and business energy. So gratifying was the result that the garden is to-day a marked feature of the welfare work for the employees of the National Cash Register Co.

In order to compare the boyhood occupations of the successful business men of Elyria to-day with the occupations of children now in school, question blanks were sent to 41 business men whose names were furnished by the secretary of the chamber of commerce. Replies were received to 29 of these questionnaires. Five men spent the period of their youth between the ages of 9 to 14 in the city, 12 lived in villages, and 12 lived on farms. Eleven boys were employed in occupations outside the home, 3 of whom were farm boys working in town. Of the 29 boys, 24 state that they had regular home duties, and only 2, both from the city, claim that they had no regular duties either in the home or outside. It is interesting to note that, of the 12 farm boys, all had regular farm chores and 3 earned extra money in the village. Of the 12 village boys, 11 had home duties, such as the care of a horse, cow, poultry, or a garden, and the twelfth had employment outside the home.

In regard to the duties of his early life, one of the men added the following note to his questionnaire: "As far back as I can remember there was something to do about the house and garden. There were no idle boys in those days. Every household contained one or more boys who were kept busy."

THE OBLIGATIONS OF THE CITY HIGH SCHOOL IN TRAINING ITS PUPILS FOR COUNTRY LIFE.

In the Elyria High School there is each year a large group of tuition-paying students from the surrounding country districts. In 1910 there were 161 of these students; in 1911, 187; in 1912, 171; in 1914, 166; in 1915, 202; and in 1916, 183. Of the total enrollment of 602 high-school students in the fall of 1916, nearly one-third, 183, were out-of-town students. All of these students come from farm homes or small rural villages and should have the opportunity to study vocational agricultural subjects. City students are well represented in agricultural classes, as one-half of the number enrolled are Elyria boys and girls. One high-school teacher gives his full teaching time to agriculture. The agricultural courses now given in the high school do not form the center of a complete course of study, but students in any of the four courses of study (classical, scientific, commercial, industrial) may elect the subject during the junior and senior years. Five courses are offered, one in general agriculture, three in horticulture, and one in animal husbandry. Because the subject is elective in the last two years of the course, the same students seldom complete more than two courses, and it is impossible to lead the pupils to a definite end by a series of progressive interrelating steps. Agriculture has become subordinate to other courses and it is not taught as a major course from a vocational standpoint. This lack of systematic arrangement of courses and the fact that home projects are not required has led, in some cases, to the election of agriculture simply to make up a required number of credits. Fifty-nine per cent of the students taking agricultural courses state that they elected it for its cultural value, 28 per cent for its vocational value, and 13 per cent because the State law requires all teachers to study the subject.

The agricultural classes were visited to determine the relation of the agricultural teaching to the out-of-school activities of the pupils. Of the 112 students present on the days the classes were visited, exactly half live in the city of Elyria and half were from the country districts. Of the city students, 26 were employed in money-earning occupations outside the home, and 15 had some regular work at home. Not any of this work had direct agricultural bearing. Of the country students, 45 had home work and 1 was employed away from home. None of the city students have home projects from which they receive the profits, while 30 country students have some form of home projects, and 18 carry the work throughout the year and receive the profits. Sixty-five of the students stated that they desired to conduct a home project under the direction of the agricultural teacher.

VALUE OF SCHOOL-DIRECTED HOME GARDENING TO ELYRIA CHILDREN.

Economic.—Reports were received from 1,431 children, 986 of whom could have home garden plats of 1,000 square feet or more. All children who have no back-yard space could be supplied with space on vacant lots. If all the 1,431 children were taught to make gardens and each child grew an average of $20 worth of vegetables a total value of $28,620 would be produced on waste land by children who now waste most of this time. Considering the amount of land available, many children might net as high as $100 per season for their garden work and the average for all might very easily be made as much as $50, a total of $71,550.

One teacher is able to direct the garden work of from 150 to 200 children, and from 6 to 8 trained teachers would be needed to work after school, on Saturdays, and during the summer vacation. An additional salary of about $250 would probably be sufficient for the extra work of each of these teachers, or a total cost to the school department of from $1,500 to $2,000. From a purely financial standpoint, an expenditure of from $1,500 to $2,000 for a return of from $28,620 to $71,550 should be good business. In case the children average a net return of only $10, the net money value to the community would be $14,310, or from seven to nine times the cost in teachers' salaries.

Health.—To improve the health of the children through out-of-door exercise would be of enough value to warrant all expenditures for garden teaching. To be mentally strong, the child must be physically healthy. A child working with feet in the soil, head in the sunshine, and lungs filled with fresh air will have redder blood coursing through his veins, eat better, sleep better, and grow into stronger manhood than one who works in mill or shop or idles his time away. The most real of all experiences comes to the child through accomplishing a worthy task that has definite relation to his life.

Mental training.—Most of the present-day city occupations open to children usually cease to be educative when they become productive. In the shop and factory, the same thing must be done in exactly the same way, day after day. In the street trades, there is very little chance for real occupational growth, and the acquiring of the "business sense," commonly spoken of, is often really the formation of habits of taking advantage of, or defrauding, others. In the garden, on the other hand, conditions are not the same from hour to hour. Each day brings new duties and problems, and each year old methods must be improved and new products may be added. The child is not taking advantage of another for his own gain, but is coping with nature's forces and learning nature's innumerable lessons, and at the same time contributing much to the comfort and pleasure of others.

Habits of industry.—Of the total number of children, 1,426, who reported on occupations, 15.8 per cent worked during the out-of-school hours and 29 per cent were employed in the vacation. The time of both boys and girls was occupied less than one hour per day by duties in the home. Studies of the out-of-school employment of children seem to show that, as the city grows in size, the possibilities for productive occupation decrease, and that the decrease is in direct ratio to the size of the city.

The boy without regular work is apt to become the man without a job. In order that the man may be a successful worker, the child needs real occupation when in the habit-forming period. The cultivation of the back yards and vacant lots of the city would furnish regular occupation for many children who have no occupation or have been excluded from harmful pursuits by child-labor laws.

The making of a successful garden requires daily work. Weeds must be subdued, the soil must be mulched, and crops must be harvested at the right time. From such regular work the child forms early the habit of industry.

Moral influences.—No other one thing reveals quite so clearly to the child his place in life's plan as work with living, growing things. Through the use and sale of garden products, he learns to value dollars in terms of labor. To learn to earn one's own living honestly is a fundamental basis of morality. The evils of community, State, and Nation come not from those who have learned to live by their own labor, but from those who wish to profit only from the labor of others.

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS.

1. The farming district about Elyria does not furnish enough vegetable food to meet the demands of the city. Thus, there is a good opportunity for vocational training in intensive gardening.

2. Within the city of Elyria the greater part of the ground is fertile and well adapted to the production of vegetables under intensive methods of cultivation.

3. There is enough land available for all children in the public schools to have all the space which they are able to cultivate. Only a small percentage of the children live in apartments, flats, or tenements, and it would be comparatively easy for teachers to find enough space for these children on the large platted areas which have not yet been built upon. The most congested area, the Hungarian village, has open areas on all sides, besides a large plat owned by the public school department, which might be used for children's gardens or family garden plats. The schools are so located that a teacher

could visit all the gardens of the children without traveling long distances.

4. The cost to an Elyria family for vegetables is such that it would be of great economic value if a large part of this food were produced in the back yards or on near-by vacant lots.

5. Twelve hundred children have no regular money-earning work after school hours and 1,012 are not employed during vacation.

6. Idleness has caused the largest number of the official juvenile court cases by the association of the boys into gangs or with older men or women of bad repute. Of the 600 unofficial cases handled by the probation officer, the greatest number of offenses occur about the twelfth year, at exactly the age at which it is easiest to arouse interest in gardening.

7. Much interest in gardening has been created by the efforts of the Elyria Home Garden Association, but because of the growth of the city the work now needs to be put on a stronger financial basis.

8. Because of the large number of home gardens, conducted either by parents or children, and the large number of small animals kept for their economic value, it would be very easy to start home project work with the present equipment.

9. The labor incomes of Elyria workingmen, although higher than formerly, have not kept pace with the increased price of commodities and are not sufficient to pay what ought to be considered necessary expenses for their support of their families.

10. The children leaving school each year because of the economic conditions of the home might be retained in school if these children could help support their parents by their work during out-of-school hours.

11. During their boyhood, the business men of to-day were very largely engaged in home duties of an agricultural nature. With the increase in the size of the city and the elimination of agricultural activities, the amount of available work for children has been very much reduced.

12. Nearly a third of the students enrolled in the Elyria High School come from the surrounding country districts. Under the present arrangement of agricultural classes, these students are not receiving satisfactory training for country life. The present courses are very largely of an academic nature and have very little real influence on the home work of the boys and girls, especially during the vacation periods, when the direction of home project work should be of the greatest value.

RECOMMENDATIONS.

1. *High school.*—Agriculture as a vocational subject should have a much more prominent place in the high-school course of study.

The subject should form the center of a course rather than be an elective in many courses.

2. The agricultural instructor should be employed for 12 months each year.

3. The full time of the agricultural instructor should be given to his subject, and he should not be burdened with other duties.

4. The course should be so arranged that by combining the students graduating in odd years in a single class and the even-year pupils in another class one instructor could direct the project work and study of each of his pupils during a full half of the school time through a four years' course. The following diagram adapted from the bulletin of the Massachusetts Board of Education, 1912, No. 4, will make this method of class grouping clear. The projects recommended in this chart proceed from the simple to the complex, and form a logical method of approach to the subject. They are: Kitchen garden, first year; small animals, second year; farm animals and farm crops, third year; and fruit growing and market gardening, fourth year.

A METHOD OF GROUPING CLASSES IN AGRICULTURE.

School years ending 1918, 1920, and other even years. **First and second year pupils, one-half school time.**	**School years ending 1920, 1922, and other even years.** **Third and fourth year pupils, one-half school time.**
Agricultural science and projects applied to a given community: Kitchen gardening: Vegetables, small fruits. Ornamental planting: Shrubbery, flowering plants, lawns. Farm shopwork: Making and repairing for home and school use hotbeds and cold frames, etc.	**Agricultural science and projects applied to a given community:** Farm animals: Types, breeding, management. Farm buildings: Sanitation and conveniences, plans, construction, upkeep. Farm crops for keeping the animals—rotations, balancing, cultivation, etc. Farm machines and implements—their use and repair.
School years ending 1919, 1921, and other odd years. **First and second year pupils, one-half school time.**	**School years ending 1921, 1923, and other odd years.** **Third and fourth year pupils, one-half school time.**
Agricultural science and projects applied to a given community: Small animals: Poultry, sheep, swine, bees—types, breeding, management, rations, etc. Buildings and equipment for small animals—plans, cost, etc. Home-grown crops for small animals—kinds, quantities, seeds, soils, place in farm crop, rotation, fertilizing, tillage, harvesting, storage. Farm shopwork and other construction.	**Agricultural science and projects applied to a given community:** Fruit growing: Orcharding and small fruits not before dealt with—propagation, cultivation, packing, etc. Market gardening: Markets, soils, seeds, fertilizers, tillage. Buildings and appliances: Plans, devices, implements, and machines—cost, use, and upkeep. Farm shopwork and other construction.

5. All high-school students in agricultural courses should be required to conduct home projects, and credits should be withheld until the projects have been completed and approved by the instructor.

6. The students in the high-school agricultural department should give half time to the study of agriculture vocationally and half to the study of cultural subjects. The following division of time recommended in the Massachusetts Board of Education Bulletin, 1916, No. 23, has proved very satisfactory in communities similar to Elyria:

DIVISION OF TIME RECOMMENDED FOR STUDENTS IN AGRICULTURE.

Part 1—Intensive Training, 50 per cent of pupil's time.	Part 2—Extensive Training, 50 per cent of pupil's time.
Project study and project work, centering on—	**Cultural and good citizenship training, selected from one or more of the regular high-school courses, and dealing with such subjects as—**
(1) Projects of the pupils. A. At home, as a rule. B. Near home, occasionally. C. Pupil responsible, but supervised by instructor.	English, every year. Social science, including community civics and economics.
(2) Projects of the department. A. At the high school, rarely. B. Neighborhood demonstration, as of pruning, spraying, hotbed making, and greenhouse work. C. Instructor responsible, but uses projects for group instruction in observation and practice work.	Natural science, including elementary science, biology, physics, and chemistry. Drawing, free-hand and mechanical. Shopwork.
(3) Substitutes for projects. A. Work on approved farms, with agreed-upon educational duties, as cost-accounting one or more cows or one or more crops. B. Employer chiefly responsible, but supervision by instructor.	Business, including typewriting, business forms, and filing, bookkeeping, commercial geography and commercial law. Physical training. Music. Recreation.
(4) Remark.—The agricultural instructor must, as a rule, assume full responsibility for teaching the "related study" required for the proper understanding and execution of his pupils. He must generally teach his boys the vital correlation between their projects and such subjects and activities as arithmetic, biology, chemistry, entomology, drawing, shopwork, accounting, filing, farm journal reading, and agricultural economics.	

Elementary schools.—1. The high-school agricultural department should be the central influence in the promotion and direction of school-directed home gardening in the elementary schools.

2. The high-school teacher of agriculture should conduct practical after-school classes for the training of home-garden teachers in the grades.

3. One regular grade teacher, after having received sufficient garden training, should direct the home gardening of the children in the school to which she is assigned. This work should be done after

school, on Saturday, and during the summer vacation, and the teacher should receive additional compensation for it.

4. A part-time garden teacher should be provided for each of the following schools: Hamilton, Jefferson, Gage, Franklin, McKinley. One teacher should conduct the work in the Garford and Ridge Schools.

5. A careful record of the money value of the crops raised should be kept in order to prove the financial, as well as the educational, success.

6. The gardening should be made as intensive as possible, and should continue through the maximum number of days possible in this climate. Winter gardening should be encouraged.

Cost.—The only additional costs involved in the recommendation of this report are:

Extra salary of high-school teacher of agriculture for three summer months	$450 to $600
Salary for extra time of six regular teachers working after school, Saturdays, and during vacations	900 to 1,200
Total	1,350 to 1,800

Chapter X.

MUSIC IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

THE NATURE AND VALUE OF MUSIC.

Man has always sought to create beauty. In tone, in clay, in pigments, and in many other media he has wrought forms to satisfy some peculiar craving of his spirit. This longing is unselfish, unworldly. The values sought are not utilitarian. They belong to a realm of aspiration distinct from the world of material demands.

Music is close to the idealistic nature of man, for it voices what is within rather than what is without. It is a voice for the expression of fundamental states of feeling which neither words nor graphic forms can so well express.

In its vocal forms, especially in opera, and in some instrumental forms, music may, indeed, seize upon incidents and situations in life and exalt and intensify their emotional aspects. But always music transcends the incident or situation in that it adds beauty—beauty of tone and beauty of tonal design—that was not inherent in the situation itself.

In so far as music quickens profound emotional powers, it energizes to action, for feeling is the mainspring of action; and in so far as it elevates mood from the worldly plane to the plane of the idealistic, it stimulates action along regenerative lines. That it has such capacities makes it of no small moment to education.

The values of music are not to be attained vicariously. Each must experience them for himself, as listener or participant. To take part in musical performance enormously increases the value of music to the individual; and the chorus singing and orchestral playing that have come into our public schools are therefore agencies that work powerfully toward the attainment of these values.

Value as a socializing force.—"One touch of nature makes the whole world kin," we say. This touch of nature is simply something which evokes a mood that is good and universally experienced. It is these broad, universal, human moods with which music deals; and consequently people exhibit, under the appeal of music, a closeness of sympathy and a unity of feeling that surpass any other unity ordinarily experienced. The fact that music can enlist the participation of large numbers of people at the same time, though they be young and old and diverse in many ways, is again a matter of profound significance. In a cosmopolitan community the hour of song in the public schools, or of community chorus practice by adults, may be the only time when complete social solidarity is attained by a community group.

Value of leisure.—The character of modern industrial and commercial life tends toward the mechanization of human life. In many callings men are never so little their own true selves as when they are at work. It is during the leisure hours that the individual powers and qualities are restored and developed. Music holds a safe and strong regenerative power for the individual during these hours immeasurably greater than the wearing excitements into which he is so often led.

Value as a vocational subject.—The number of graduates from our public schools who practice music vocationally is out of all proportion to the provision made in most schools for their instruction; and the generous provision is made for other subjects of assumed vocational importance which, in vocational outcome, are not in advance of music. A much greater degree of attention is due to music as a vocational subject alone.

DEPARTMENTAL MUSIC IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

A department of music in a public-school system should be organized and should function in such a way as to attain the values stated or implied in the foregoing section. Its success in such attainment will be dependent upon two general factors, each of which is susceptible of many subdivisions.

The first factor is pedagogical. The specific ideals that characterize and direct the work of the department; the ideals of the school authorities and of the teachers who administer the course; the musical education and training of both special and regular teachers; their pedagogical knowledge and ability; the nature and extent of the course of study as dependent upon the professional ideals and knowledge that prevail; all of these considerations and many more operate powerfully in shaping results, both as to their extent and quality.

The second factor is one of organization and equipment. The number of supervisors and teachers employed in the department; the plan of organization; the equipment provided, such as music books, sheet music for choruses and orchestras, pianos, organs and orchestral instruments, pitch pipes, staff liners, blank music writing paper, etc.; these are some of the considerations grouped under the second factor.

The first factor obviously forecasts the possible outcome of the teaching done, on the basis of qualitative result; the other forecasts it on the basis of quantitative result.

Ordinarily the two maintain a somewhat balanced relationship; for teaching that is rich in quality is likely to attract to itself adequate equipment; and, on the other hand, quantity of provision is likely to imply either a large present interest or an enthusiasm toward building up an interest that in itself promises much. In Elyria there has been an artificial disturbance of these relations; and because it seems necessary to discuss present conditions and future possibilities in Elyria from two standpoints, the foregoing somewhat arbitrary division is made.

BASIS OF THE REPORT ON MUSIC.

This report is based upon observations made in visits to the seven elementary schools and the high school in Elyria. Of the 59 rooms in the elementary schools, 55 were visited, and in all but 3 of them some exhibition of the work in music was given, sometimes by means of a formal and extended music recitation, at other times by the singing of songs alone, or by the singing of both songs and sight-reading exercises. In the high school some assembly singing was heard and several visits and conferences with the members of the educational staff yielded valuable information; but no opportunity occurred to hear the high-school orchestra or the high-school choruses and glee clubs. A parent-teachers' meeting attended at the close of an afternoon session in one elementary school yielded interesting suggestions. In another school one of the classes (listed as unvisited in the foregoing statement) was found assembled and listening to an interesting lecture-recital given by the teacher in charge with the aid of a phonograph just purchased. Highly valuable information was acquired also in conferences with persons interested and informed as to conditions who were not members of the regular educational staff.

MUSIC IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

Elyria has had music in her public schools for a number of years, and a competent supervisor has been employed during the past 14 years at least. Beginning in September, 1916, the services of the supervisor were discontinued. A survey of conditions made after a semester had passed during which no specialist was directing the work, must necessarily be guarded against assumptions that rest upon ignorance of the amount of change caused by the modification in the school system. The first fact noted was the spirit of the teachers under the change. There was little or no feeling of relaxation. Instead there was a feeling of greater responsibility incurred and of greater obligation for extra effort. Doubtless the teachers were moved not only by the characteristic sense of fidelity to a trust, but also by inclination; for any teacher who loves children and has felt the kinship between the spirit of childhood and the spirit of music will not willingly relinquish it. This leads to a comment upon the spirit of the Elyria schools in general. It is professional and humanistic. In this the schools provide the indispensable condition in which music, art, literature, and liberalizing influences generally may develop. School systems can be found in which the spirit is so rigorously hard and formal that liberalizing influences obtain no foothold and can make no growth. This is not the case in Elyria.

The methods and practice of teaching do not make full capital out of this general spirit and intention (conscious or subconscious) of the school system and the community. The method is often incongruous with it, and with a proper plan of music instruction, in that it approaches an art problem in a scientific spirit, and presents music primarily as a technical problem of staff notation and sight singing, rather than as an art in which there must be richness of experience and freedom and grace of expression. The practices are at times misdirected by this unfortunate bias of method, and are marked also by some lack of skill and efficiency. There is further a deplorably meager equipment of music books and contributory musical material, and the time given to music, while adequate in the lower grades, is insufficient in the higher grades. To offset these deficiencies there are at present but two influences, namely, the fine spirit of the teaching staff and the occasional presence of teachers of unusual musical ability and training.

For pupils in the first year of school the course very properly prescribes nothing but rote songs until the last month of the school year, when the scale by syllables is taught by rote. In the second year rote singing is continued, but a parallel course of instruction in staff notation is begun and developed on the blackboard.

Several features of instruction that are open to criticism were observed so frequently in the work for these two years that they may be said to be prevalent. The rote songs were often not well chosen, and when they were not bad in themselves they were presented often from a wrong standpoint. A short discussion of principles is unavoidable here, if the reader and the writer are to arrive at a common basis of understanding.

In so far as music (mainly in song) connects itself with incidents and situations of life and dilates upon their emotional significence, it covers a range of moods that are common to all the arts, and indeed, to ordinary sentimental experience. Now, the musician cares but little for the worldly incident; that is but the trigger that releases in the composer the flow of real tonal beauty. But to the layman, less sensitive and less trained to respond to purely musical beauty, the incident itself assumes paramount importance, for it belongs to ordinary nonmusical experience. The grade teacher, quite defensibly, belongs normally to the laity. A song entitled "Snow" is likely to appeal to her because of her interest in snow rather than her interest in song. The tune, being a negligible factor, may consequently not be carefully scrutinized and evaluated. Many a shoddy and vulgar tune has thus crept into school music.

But the mischief does not stop here. If music is the first consideration, beautiful tone, necessitating good voice management and graceful, delicate shading and phrasing will be demanded. On the other hand, if pictorial or narrative function is primarily the aim, beautiful singing is less important than impulsive declamation. To enter into a song, on this basis, a child does not need primarily to train his ear and modulate his voice accurately and beautifully so much as he needs to visualize and dramatize a situation. But the situation, so visualized, is likely to distract his attention from anything tonal that may be happening.

The selection of "barnyard" songs and songs of like ungentle realistic character, violent "motion" songs, loud and unmusical singing, many monotones, and much use of the chest voice, are some of the signs that frequently mark the adoption of this wrong principle.

Applied to the Elyria schools, the most that should be said is that there is some uncertainty as to basic principles in selecting and teaching rote songs. The majority of the songs are good; but the occasional presentation of an unmusical song in a dramatized manner, often with the employment of laboriously contrived motions, implies that choice does not rest upon irrevocable conviction. Again, songs that were musically excellent were often given with a focus of attention upon the worldly incident rather than upon the tonal beauty that alone gave them merit. The vocal quality and practice was, in the main, very good. It was vitiated occasionally by emphasis upon the wrong values in the manner just described. More frequently a faulty and indefensible practice of another sort was observed. This was the failure to use a pitch pipe. Song after song was started by guess by the teacher, invariably in too low a key. Probably two-thirds of the singing heard from first and second year classes was below the favorable range for children's voices, and so was not only productive of poor tone but was developing wrong vocal methods. In only three of these rooms was a pitch pipe used. Often the teacher gave the command to sing without giving any pitch whatever, leaving the guessing of the pitch to the children. After a few measures the group, in such cases, would unite with the strongest voice.

No desk copies of rote song books for use by the teacher were observed anywhere. Inquiry elicited the information that none had ever been provided. Prior to this year the supervisor of music had hectographed rote songs from various sources, and the songs thus laboriously provided were the only ones generally available. The board of education should reflect that these songs are frequently copyrighted and are not open to reproduction. Such songs still comprise the course, but are occasionally supplemented by songs of doubtful value obtained by teachers from educational journals and other sources.

The proportion of monotones in the lower grades and throughout the elementary schools is somewhat larger than it should be. The dramatic rather than the musical and vocal conception of song and the failure to use pitch pipes are doubtless largely responsible. Discussions with teachers disclosed no definite and generally accepted convictions and methods of practice with regard to monotones. Only the slightest trace was found of the ancient fallacy that monotones are defective of ear—are unmusical or tone deaf. It was generally held that they are curable and therefore are inept vocally rather than defective aurally. Again, in relation to this feature of work, the teachers as a class were uncertain and lacked a clearly outlined creed. Results were, therefore, very uneven, for they depended upon such capabilities and training as the individual teacher might have previously acquired and not upon any present help provided by the Elyria school system.

The position for singing generally required of the pupils in the lower grades was faulty. Each pupil must clasp his hands behind his back. This may lead to good discipline, but it results in a stiff and constrained position that is detrimental to good breathing and singing. In the higher grades the necessity for handling books led to the abandonment of this position.

The introduction of staff notation in the second year is in accord with approved educational practice, but the manner of study is not. Technical study is not based upon the rote song experience previously gained, but it becomes a separate and unrelated form of study. Sight reading is made to depend upon analytical reckoning up and down the degrees of the staff, instead of upon unreasoned and immediate knowledge gained through more and more detailed observation upon the notational aspects of familiar songs and studies. The method followed causes the pupil to conquer music by the use of purely rational processes and requires that his freedom of musical expression (except for the contemporaneous course in rote singing) wait upon a technical mastery so gained. It is a method that has been generally abandoned, for the same reason that the alphabet method in reading has been abandoned.

The first two years in the elementary school should be years of musical experience. They should give the child the use of his singing voice and pleasure in song as a means of expression; they should accustom his ear to beauty of tone and store his mind with memories of pure tonal procedure as it lives in a wide repertoire of beautiful rote songs for children, many of them folk songs, many of them by such writers as Schumann, Reinecke, Taubert, Nevin, and Mrs. Gaynor; they should bring to him in the second year a view of the staff and of staff notation, and his attention should then be called to the correlation between tonal processes and the visual symbols of the staff, until the musical forms symbolized are called to his mind quickly by the appearance of the notation. Sight reading as a mathematical computation of staff relationship from which musical feeling and intuition are absent or in which they play no helpful part is not then or at any later period a necessary or appropriate practice. This does not mean that children are not to be taught to read music; for all can and should be taught to read it accurately and fluently. It means only that musical feeling and study of the technic of music should never be divorced, especially in the earlier years.

In the third year in the Elyria schools music books are placed in the hands of the pupils, and the course assumes in general the formal outlines within which it is to be developed during the succeeding years of the elementary school. It is unnecessary to discuss the work of these years separately. The important comments are general and apply to all years equally. Comment applying to features characteristic of specific years will be explicitly referred to those years.

Beginning in the third year the presentation by the teachers of music in many keys naturally brought about a more frequent use of pitch pipes. It is of course, impossible to do the work well without constant use of the pitch pipe, but such use is not yet fully established in Elyria, even in the later years of school life. In fewer than two-thirds of the rooms in all the higher grades was the pitch pipe used. The singing was frequently below pitch and of wrong vocal quality in consequence.

The spirit and manner of technical instruction begun in the second year is maintained throughout the succeeding years. An assumption that underlies this method is that eventually a scientific technical power will be attained that will be at the service of the student for the adequate expression of his musical nature. Incidentally this implies that musical feeling is already in the student, needs no special exercise for its development, and will lie dormant without diminution until technical attainment unlocks the doors and permits it to step forth in joyous freedom. But musical feeling, like musical technic, must be developed step by step; and again, there is the ominous possibility that a technical mastery may never be gained, and that all may be lost. Exactly this is happening, in moderate degree, in Elyria. Technic, divorced from free musical expression, endeavors to fit itself as a vehicle for that expression, but remains always below the point at which the student's musical nature must be seized for its proper development. There is consequently in Elyria not enough joyous singing nor enough live interest and vigorous development in technical work. Music stands defeated by technic; and technic has lost its old faith in its ability to reach the goal of union with music, and is dejected.

The cure is to reverse the process and expect musical practice, with study of that practice, to lead to technic rather than to expect a study of technic to lead to musical practice.

The lack of joyous, beautifully finished singing was, as may be supposed from the foregoing, more conspicuous in Elyria than the lack of technical knowledge or even of technical ability. Some beautiful singing was heard, especially in lower-grade rooms; but since singing, especially in the higher grades, is restricted to the range of technical conquest, the pupils are not trained to use the ear as a corrective and guide in their singing, but only the rational intellect. Until it informs them of error they remain seemingly unconscious of error, or at least unresponsive to the testimony of the ear. If they sing altogether by ear, as I heard some few classes do on a song or two, the lack of their familiar scientific means of measurement and evaluation puts them again at a loss. The remedy is to approach music as an art of tonal expression, and cultivate a refined sense of hearing. The ear should first recognize right from wrong; the mind should provide explanation of the cause.

Knowledge of elementary theory, that is of kinds of notes and rests, measures, key signatures, keys, chromatic signs, etc., is very good and fairly uniform. Ability to sing at sight is excellent in some rooms and quite poor in others, but the average is very fair. These two phases of study are properly inseparable, but in many cases they were treated separately. For instance, a feature of instruction frequently observed was a preliminary quiz on some song to be sung as to its kind of measure, its notes and their length, its keys, etc. Often this was followed by concerted *reading*, not singing, of the syllable names of the notes. There is no harm in such a quiz, provided the knowledge essential to the answers is not purely academic. If it represents a memorizing process only, and the knowledge implied does not spring out of extensive practical experience in singing at sight, it is nothing but a formal memory drill, representing no musical power, and for which practice in using the knowledge talked about might be well substituted. As to the toneless naming of syllables, it is a barren and time-wasting process. The syllable names to all the notes in a book might be so named without giving the slightest increase in musical power to the student. Syllables are valuable when associated with tones to such a point that the syllable suggests the tone and the tone suggests the syllable. If the pupils would merely look at their books and sing silently, as a preparation for singing audibly, they would probably think both syllable names and tones, and rhythm in addition. Mere speaking of the syllable names is certain to drive the thought of the tone from their minds; and the rhythmic movement is of course not considered. The sequel to such preparation was often what might be anticipated; the pupils answered the questions and spoke the names correctly and then failed to sing the song or study in time and in tune. The preparation had not prepared; it was merely doing something else first. When the pupils did not fail after such preliminaries, it was evident that they would not have failed anyway, as they could invariably sing other studies equally well without such formal preliminaries.

Two-part singing is successful, though not uniformly so. The average accomplishment, however, is good. Three-part singing, with treble voices, is less uniform, and the average attainment is moderate. The work observed, indeed, was below the standard of moderate, but it would be unfair to estimate net results from the work heard. No phase of school music is more seriously disturbed by the shifting of pupils at the beginning of a new term than part singing, and this survey of the music was made just following the beginning of a new semester. Power, however, may be estimated at such a time much more accurately than attainment; and from the power exhibited as well as some attainments noted it is probable that the three-part singing is better than moderate, rather than poorer.

Although part singing is successfully developed in the schools of Elyria, it is yet open to one fundamental objection. The general practice, systematically carried out, places all the boys on the lower part or parts, all the girls on the higher. Whether the pupils are assigned such parts by the teachers, or whether the classification is left, as I was informed it is, to the choice of the pupils, with the result stated, the plan is seriously faulty. It begins by affirming, or at least condoning, a palpable untruth, namely, that the unchanged voices of the boys are different from those of girls and are lower in pitch. It proceeds then to warp the voices of the boys toward their lower range and consequently toward a mode of voice production fundamentally vicious for children. Meanwhile the girls, although safe vocally, are weakened negatively in their growth in musical power to a deplorable degree; for training in carrying a lower part is of inestimable value in any system of instruction in music. There is absolutely no basis in fact for this scheme of classification, for the voices are equal, boys and girls alike. Any group singing a second part of one song, or throughout one week, should sing the first part for an equal period following. All would thus develop their entire normal vocal range and have opportunity to develop equal musical power. In three-part singing a similar plan should be adopted and applied to all voices except an occasional unusual one, perhaps a changed voice or a treble voice of exceptional register. In the sixth year, and still more in the seventh, there will be such voices and they should be individually examined and classified. All the others, lacking distinctive features of range, should be treated uniformly.

There is no plan in theory or practice, so far as could be seen, for caring for the changing voices of boys in the seventh and eighth grades. The work with classes that include such voices is below normal standards. Such splendid results can be obtained with these boys under expert management that it is depressing to see ability and interest come to naught through lack of guidance. There is more than a present musical loss, more than a musical loss present or to come, in such failure. To change a boy from an embarrassed humiliated person, possessed of a growing conviction that he is unmusical, and a consequent growing distaste for music that may even lead to rebellion against the music hour and the constraints of the school in general, into an unashamed lad, filled with interest, proud of his knowledge and new-found vocal technic, somewhat overeager and overconfident, indeed, about singing, and certain that he is quite musical—to do all this is to do much more than merely secure a present satisfactory musical result. Often it means to awaken a new personality; and at the least it means to add some capacity for enjoyment to a boy's life at just the time when he was about to renounce it with disdainful bitterness.

MUSICAL INSTRUMENTS.

An aspect of aridity appears in the elementary schools, with respect to music, because of the small provision made for musical instruments. One good new piano was seen; and one school principal had herself provided a piano in the room in which she was teaching, and was giving to most of the classes in her school lessons in her own room, where the piano could be used greatly to enrich the lessons. The seven kindergarten pianos were not examined. Use of such pianos is ordinarily restricted to the kindergarten alone, but if those in Elyria are in good enough condition to be used, they might otherwise be put into service, for the kindergartens have been abandoned. No reed organs were found. Five schools were found to possess phonographs, but these serve other purposes than pianos or organs and can not be considered as substitutes for them.

A piano or organ in the schoolroom lends to the music in that room exactly what it would lend in a home. Its mere presence adds interest and charm to the atmosphere, and its use not only broadens the musical horizon and adds to musical enjoyment, but is also an invaluable aid in giving technical instruction. The development of community relationships in the school, through informal recitals by individual pupils for the benefit of the other pupils, is an additional value.

No report was obtained of the number of pupils in the elementary schools studying orchestral instruments, but the number of such students in the high school probably implies a large number among the younger pupils. Beyond permitting some eighth-year students to play in the high-school orchestra, no systematic encouragement is given to orchestral playing among elementary pupils. This field, which is important though not large, is consequently undeveloped.

No printed course of study in music has been provided in recent years. So long as a supervisor of music was employed, the lack of an official outline probably worked but little harm. Without a supervisor the lack of an outline is sure to lead to chaotic conditions.

MUSIC IN THE HIGH SCHOOL.

All music in the high school is elective. Chorus practice, orchestra ensemble, boys' glee club, girls' glee club, the study of music under outside teachers, and the practice of ensemble music in organizations outside the school are the forms of work open to election. All are credit courses, and the credit is equal to that offered in other subjects for an equal amount of effort and accomplishment.

The plan is thoroughly modern in its point of view, particularly with reference to its recognition of the study or practice of music outside the school. In breadth it loses only by the lack of instruction in harmony and musical appreciation within the school. With the addition of these the ground plan of work would be equal to that of the most advanced schools.

The high-school enrollment as reported for February, 1917, was 635. This number, and the fact that music is elective and represents an unconstrained interest on the part of the pupils electing it, should be kept in mind in connection with the following discussion.

Chorus practice within the school receives one 45-minute period per week for each group enrolling for it. There are four groups, one for each of the high-school years. The election within these groups for February, 1917, was as follows: Freshmen, 42; sophomores, 41; juniors, 60; seniors, 48; total, 191.

The boys' glee club at the same period numbered 20, the girls' glee club 28. Each of these organizations devotes about one hour and a quarter per week to practice.

In this same semester the high-school orchestra numbered 26 members, the instrumentation including all the string parts, first and second clarinets, first and second cornets, one horn, one trombone, drums, and piano. This instrumentation is exceptionally good in its inclusion of viola and horn, unusual in its lacking flute. Further discussion of this matter of instrumentation will follow later.

An investigation was made as to the number of students in the high school studying music under outside teachers or participating in outside musical activities, as singing in choruses or choirs, or playing in orchestras or bands. The results were astonishing. They are summarized in the following: Studying or practicing, piano, 44; violin, 16; viola, 1; cello, 2; bass, 1; clarinet, 4; cornet, 2; drums, 2; total, 72. Reporting orchestra, not specifying instrument, 3; reporting music lessons, specifying instrument, 1;. reporting instrumental (probably piano), 1; grand total, 77.

From the total, 77, should be subtracted 7, as one pupil reported (and was counted for) both piano and cello, one reported piano and violin, one piano and viola, two piano and clarinet, and one piano, bass, and drums. The number of individuals engaged is therefore 70. To these may be added 1 practicing mandolin and 1 practicing banjo, not counted because these instruments are not recognized in serious musical literature. Also 1 student reported practicing the ukelele; but as this student reported piano also, she was not disqualified.

Turning to those following exclusively some form of vocal practice outside the school, this report was compiled: Singing in choral organizations—church choir, 15; Sunday school, 2; glee clubs, 2; total, 19; taking voice lessons, 1; grand total, 20.

In addition, seven in the instrumental list also reported membership in some outside choral organization, thus adding to the high-school membership of outside organizations, but without involving any more high-school pupils.

One student reported "music in school and also outside of school," but without specifying its nature.

The whole report shows that 91 high-school students engage in the study or practice of music outside of the school, and in doing this fill by double activity about 100 places as students or participants in concerted practice. This is about one-seventh of the total enrollment of the high school.

If it is assumed that all the 91 are included in the choruses, glee clubs, and orchestra within the school, which is probable, and that, in addition, the glee clubs are composed of members selected from the high-school choruses, thus further lessening the total number of individuals enlisted, it appears that at least 217 individual students elect music in or out of school, or both. This is over one-third the entire high-school enrollment. In other words, one out of every three pupils voluntarily embraces music in some form; and this, notwithstanding that music is not vigorously promoted by the school system, is very meagerly supplied and equipped in both the elementary schools and high school, and has been abandoned as of comparatively little importance since the school treasury began to run low. No subject upon which parents spend so much effort and money in an endeavor to educate their children in it has so remained outside the circle of studies recognized as essential in the school curriculum.

The high school owns a piano, one horn, and drums. The horn was mentioned in a foregoing paragraph. It is safe to say that its tones would not be there to enrich the orchestra if it were not owned by the school. Further progress in wealth of instrumentation is only possible if additional instruments, such as oboes, bassoons, and timpani, are owned by the school. Parents will not buy them, but once in the school students can always be found to study and play them.

The horn and drums were purchased with the proceeds of concerts given by the high-school orchestra. Music stands and the orchestral music used have likewise been purchased from funds similarly raised. Yet the high-school orchestra plays for the graduation exercises of the school, for which otherwise a professional orchestra would be hired. In addition to this material contribution, it graces many school functions, engages community interest for the school, and gives the essentials of a valuable musical understanding, not only to the members of the orchestra but to the entire school as well. Its work has been serious and of high purpose. The music studied, as represented in the programs of the annual concerts is of very high standard. If school support were at all commensurate with the benefits received by the school the orchestra would doubtless advance to a point that would make it the pride of the city.

The chorus work, like the orchestra work, is conducted on part of the time of one teacher. Like the orchestra work, also, it is seriously and ably conducted and meagerly supported. What was said in the foregoing paragraph of the functions and values of a school orchestra may be applied as well to school choruses. Even more than the orchestra, because of the greater numbers involved, they help to socialize a school and foster a desirable school spirit, all the while maintaining their function of educating the students musically. The interest of the students is shown in Elyria by the numbers electing the various classes. Incidentally a great number of these reported that they did not need the credit given for the work, but were taking a full course to which their music was added. If such interest and endeavor were properly encouraged, some notable chorus work could be done; and with a well-supported orchestra, which could play the accompaniments, a delightful field of musical endeavor would be opened. Meanwhile, despite present conditions, the chorus manages to be of much benefit to the churches and the choral music of the city generally. It need not be doubted that additional support would bring forth disproportionately large dividends.

Specialized study of music under outside teachers by high-school pupils is coming very generally in the United States to receive credit, and that this provision is made by the Elyria schools is a matter for congratulation. No feature in all school administration, however, requires greater safeguarding than this, if the schools are to be protected in their standards of work and in the values of their credit awards. One of two plans is usually adopted. Either an accredited list of outside teachers is made, or a list of standard music material is prescribed for all teachers and pupils. Both plans are open to objection. If teachers are accredited, the line between the accepted and rejected teachers soon becomes difficult to draw and more difficult to maintain. If the material for teaching is specified, and at best this can be done only for piano, there will be numerous objections to it from the teachers, who will be alienated.

Examination of the work done by the pupil is indispensable to the proper working of the first plan. This plan is followed in Elyria, but examinations of the pupil are not given. The teachers must have the approval of the Conservatory of Music of Oberlin, Ohio, and doubtless their ability is duly ascertained. But if there be not further supervision, no renewal of the accrediting of a teacher from time to time, it is obvious that poor work may be done and never be disclosed.

Examinations should certainly be given; but they may cause expense, which either the school or the pupils must bear; and they may cause protests from all the teachers of examined pupils except those who are for the time serving as examiners. Local spirit alone will solve the question of expense; but the examinations can be made acceptable by a plan now suggested.

This plan requires that written reports be made each month, by pupil, parent, and teacher, of the lessons, material, hours of practice, etc. The report should be made in duplicate on a blank form provided, and one copy is signed by pupil, parent, and teacher, the duplicate copy is returned unsigned. An identification number is on each copy.

All supervision and criticism of the course laid out, and all examinations over the work of the course are conducted from observations of the unsigned copy of the card. In the examinations the pupil should be kept from the view of the examiners, who judge of his work by ear alone. The most authoritative musicians may and should be the examiners; and they can usually be secured because no accusation of unfairness or prejudice can be raised against them. All verdicts are written on the backs of the unsigned cards and are transmitted to the teacher of music through the high-school principal's office. The office alone, therefore, can connect the verdict with the particular teacher or pupil involved.

It can not be said that the Elyria schools are crediting bad work; but it must be said that they are crediting work regarding the value of which they have no positive knowledge. The school has a right to know exactly for what its credit is given, and it is its duty to know. The practice in Elyria, admirable as it is in general intent, is subject to criticism in this respect.

THE SCHOOLS IN RELATION TO THE COMMUNITY.

As the Elyria schools are not now promoting music vigorously, either in the elementary schools or in the high school, it is perhaps superfluous to make comment or suggest possibilities with reference to community music. A better financial day may dawn, however, and in that case the few suggestions made here may not be useless.

The socializing value of music need not again be asserted. It remains to point out that in the public schools alone can the people meet on an equal basis, as equal owners and proprietors, and undertake with entire appropriateness an educational effort in their own behalf, at their own expense. Choruses and orchestras, groups for the study of theoretical music or seeking to attain appreciation of music, may well be organized and may meet in the school buildings after day-school hours. The cost is not great, for instruction and conducting will often be donated. The school system need, therefore, provide little but the schoolroom and light and heat, as a minimum. If even this be impossible, opportunity should at least be given the community to use its school buildings at cost of service, if it so wishes, and public announcement of this opportunity might be made.

That the community at large has much community spirit and is in sympathetic relations with the school community was evident at several points. In one elementary school the pupils of the eighth grade sang for a parent-teachers' meeting held in the school at the close of the afternoon session. The great interest with which the singing was received and the cordial cooperative spirit manifested between parents and teachers revealed clearly an almost ideal social solidarity. The parent-teacher associations have also cooperated with schools in raising funds by school and community programs for the purchase of one new piano and five phonographs, that are distributed among a like number of elementary schools. In such endeavors it is not the purchase itself that alone is important; the cooperative effort is of such value that if no funds were raised the community would be hardly less the gainer. The close association of the high-school musical organizations with the community has already been noted.

So, following much comment and much criticism, one comes back to the reflection with which this review began, that the fine community life in which music, the most social of the arts, should find its most fertile soil, is present in Elyria. Also the music is there, revealed in individual interest and in the ranking accorded it in the high school; but yet it is singularly undeveloped. The cause seems to be little expenditure has been made for its maintenance and development, an expenditure small in former years, and reduced almost to nothing at present. Whether such extreme economy was wholly unavoidable the writer can not judge, but certainly almost all the shortcomings criticized in this review were due either to lack of supervision or lack of supplies or equipment and such criticisms can not be held to reflect discredit upon the members of the teaching staff in whom the fault would otherwise seem superficially to lie.

RECOMMENDATIONS.

SECTION I. IMPROVEMENTS POSSIBLE AT SLIGHT EXPENSE, THROUGH EXTENSION OF THE ACTIVITIES OF THE DEPARTMENT AS AT PRESENT CONSTITUTED.

Elementary schools.—1. A detailed printed manual and course of study in music should be prepared for the elementary school-teachers. This course of study should be prepared by one thoroughly conversant with present conditions, preferably the former supervisor of music. It should outline basic work for each grade, by weeks, and give instructions and suggestions as to methods and practice. In short it should take the place, as far as possible, of the supervisor of music.

The manual should prescribe the time to be given to music in each grade. Not less than 75 minutes a week in lower grades and 100 minutes in seventh and eighth grades is recommended. The manual should give all possible directions for the examination, classification, and treatment of the changing voice and for the treatment of monotones.

2. Supplementing the manual, meetings of teachers by grades should be held. A competent instructor, preferably the former supervisor of music, should be engaged to instruct the teachers in these meetings in all details of the work in music for a coming period of weeks. One meeting a month for each grade would be sufficient, if the printed outline recommended were also provided; but one meeting a semester would be better than none.

3. A copy of each of several rote song books should be provided each teacher of the first and second grades. The songs in these books that are to be used should be outlined in the printed course of study, or in some other competent, official way. Classifications by grades (first or second), by seasons, and as to practicability of use without instrumental accompaniment should be included in the information given in the outline of the song work.

4. Pitch pipes, preferably such as give almost all tones of the chromatic scale, should be provided all teachers. For hygienic reasons pitch pipes should be assigned to teachers, not to rooms, and in cases of transfer the pitch pipe should go with the teacher. The teachers should be instructed to use the pitch pipes sufficiently to be sure that every song is sung at the pitch in which it is written.

5. All rote songs outlined should be good as music as a first condition. The words should also be good as literature. A wide range of topics and interests can be covered by songs that meet both these two conditions. Rote songs should be performed in such a way as to make them beautiful, vocally and musically.

6. A more systematic effort to cure monotones should be made. This effort could best be directed through the outlines and the teachers' meetings recommended. Each row of pupils in a primary schoolroom should be graded, the monotones being assigned the front seats, the good singers the back seats. The monotones should be assisted by the teacher and by the children who sing correctly to abandon the speaking-voice level in favor of the light, high, singing-voice level of the child.

7. The position of the pupils for singing should be improved. The forearms, to the elbows, should rest upon the desks. The pupils should sit lightly and easily erect, be "tall above the hips," forward on the seats, so far as the curve in the seats permits, and keep their backs straight, but not necessarily perpendicular. They should *not* incline backward from the perpendicular, but rather forward.

8. Technical study should be made specific rather than general and abstract. It should result from the desire to master a song, should spring from the song and be undertaken in relation to the particular song, and should not precede whole groups of songs as a general basis from which the songs take rise. It should proceed from the particular to the general, instead of the reverse, as now.

9. In two-part and three-part singing with treble voices each row should contain some boys and some girls, and no one group of rows should be assigned any one particular part for a longer continuous period than a week. All pupils in such classes may well sing together, first on the alto, then on the soprano, in working out a song, and then divide when the parts are to be sung together. The same plan should be applied to practice on three-part songs.

10. Systematic individual singing should be practiced in all the first six grades at least. The plan should insure hearing each pupil in a room at least once a week. Music that has been mastered by the class as a whole should be used for such practice. Instruction of each pupil, as his turn comes, should not be attempted. Errors should be noted, but the effort should not be made to drill the individual until the errors are overcome. Drill should be secured by the repetition by different pupils of the same phrase or period of song. Self-consciousness will not be generated, but will be obviated or overcome, if this practice is adopted from the first year on. In rooms where part-singing is a feature, two pupils or more, one for each part, in parallel seats of adjoining rows should sing together, forming duets, trios, or quartets.

11. Changing voices in the seventh and eighth year classes should be studied individually and should be assigned to appropriate and practicable parts. Teachers of these classes should receive specific instruction from the printed outline and in the grade meetings.

12. The organization and development of orchestral groups in the elementary schools should be encouraged. In schools which have some teacher who is musical and knows the rudiments of orchestral technic the orchestra could be rehearsed once a week by this teacher, who should receive additional compensation for such service.

13. The requirements in music for elementary school teachers should be greatly increased. At present 10 lessons only are required in that part of the prospective teachers' training which precedes a finishing term of six weeks in a normal school; and the 10 lessons are considered extra and are not given integral credit.[1] In addition to the present requirements, at least one year of music in the high school should be a prerequisite of admission to the teachers' training class, the course to lead to certified knowledge of elementary theory and ability to read music at sight. In lieu of this course, satisfactory evidence of an equal attainment gained elsewhere should be accepted. No teacher should be accepted in the elementary school system who does not give satisfactory evidence of the possession of this same measure of musical knowledge and ability. This requirement is doubly necessary when no supervisor of music is employed.

High school.—14. All music for the orchestra should be purchased from school funds, and the provision of such music should be liberal. Music stands should be purchased out of school funds, as permanent equipment for the high-school auditorium. Each contribution of money from the orchestra, acquired by giving concerts, and used for the purchase of school-owned instruments, should be increased by the contribution of an equal amount from the school funds, the whole to be devoted to the purchase of school-owned instruments. Music for the glee clubs should be purchased from the school funds.

15. Chorus practice should receive two 45-minute periods per week for each group rehearsing.

16. Supervision and examination of the specialized study of music under outside teachers should be far more strict and searching. Some plan of authoritative examination which would be above criticism as to its impersonal and unprejudiced character should be immediately adopted and followed.

The community.—17. Official printed announcement should be made by the school authorities to the effect that the high-school auditorium will be open one night per week throughout the school year for the use of a large community chorus, devoted to the practice of serious choral music. The school system should provide the conductor for this chorus out of school funds, by increasing the annual salary of some competent member of the present staff of teachers or by engaging a conductor on a part-time basis. High-school pupils should be eligible to this chorus if recommended by the high-school teacher of music. Expense to members of the chorus should be for music only. Though the school system can not create a public attitude toward such a community activity, it should at least provide opportunity for its development if popular interests should exist.

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[1] See Course of Study, High School, Elyria, Ohio, 1916–17, p. 10.

Similar announcement should be made regarding a proposed community orchestra, to be operated under the same plan and provisions as the community chorus.

SECTION II. IMPROVEMENTS POSSIBLE ONLY AT CONSIDERABLE EXPENSE AND INVOLVING RECONSTRUCTION OF THE DEPARTMENT.

1. Provide a piano for each floor of each elementary school.

2. Provide a portable reed organ for each elementary school.

3. In addition to the teachers' desk copies of rote songbooks recommended in Section I, supplementary books of songs graded in harmony with the textbooks now in use should be purchased. A set of 45 or 50 copies of each of such supplementary books should be purchased for each elementary school. A set could be made to serve several rooms of appropriate grade in each school by carrying it from room to room.

4. At least one set of such supplementary publications should be available for every class of grades two to six. At least two sets of such supplementary publications should be available for classes of grades seven and eight. The supplementary books for the latter grades should present material appropriate to a wide range of vocal conditions.

5. A supervisor of music should be employed who should be in general direction of all the music in the elementary schools and high school. In addition to issuing a printed outline, and instructing elementary teachers in grade meetings, the supervisor should visit each schoolroom once a fortnight or once in every three weeks. In these visits the supervisor should give model lessons, supervise lessons given by the regular teacher, and give counsel for the improvement of such teaching.

6. The supervisor of music should teach some of the high-school classes in music.

7. An assistant teacher of music should be employed on part time in the high school.

8. A course in harmony and a course in musical appreciation and history should be added to the present offerings. These courses should be elective and those who take them should recite three hours per week in each course, and should receive credit equal, hour for hour, with academic subjects.

Chapter XI.

DRAWING AND ART EDUCATION.

Art education means the appreciation and practice of those principles of order and beauty that are everlasting, with the quality of sincere and loving expression, to the end that boys and girls may grow up to love beauty and express it in all phases of their existence. Thus will our homes become objects of artistic creation, our dress more appropriate and tasteful, our manufactured products enhanced in value, our places of business more attractive, our advertising and printed matter more pleasing, until whole communities express their æsthetic nature in towns and cities that speak beauty on every side and rival those beauty spots in Europe that have found art quality such a precious and profitable possession.

A SUPERVISOR OF DRAWING.

Elyria had for some years followed the practice, adopted in most cities, of engaging a supervisor of drawing to take charge of this special work in the grades. Visits were made and instruction given to both teachers and pupils on alternate weeks, with the exception of the seventh grade, where lessons were given weekly. For financial reasons this supervisor, with others, was discontinued during the past school year. In order that the work in this subject might not suffer the full consequences of such elimination, the superintendent, with commendable sympathy and intelligence, made arrangements for a supply of one of the best of recent drawing-book publications. These were ordered by the school board and purchased by the pupils in each grade from the first to the seventh, inclusive. These books are regarded as a temporary expedient. They are successful to the degree that the teacher is able to interpret them to her pupils. Some teachers with more experience use them to great advantage, while in other cases less confident ones reduce them to most servile copy books. In this latter case, the free spontaneous expression of childhood is restricted and confined, perhaps for all time, since this period of flexibility and spontaneous impulse is such a fleeting one.

The grade teachers, without exception, deserve the greatest commendation for their good spirit, interest in the subject, and their accomplishment under circumstances which have made the work difficult for many of them. As a rule grade teachers are trained to feel confidence in their ability to teach writing, but drawing and art expression have not been made a feature in the equipment of many. Nearly all the grade teachers of Elyria expressed regard for the value of the work, a feeling of loss that the supervisor's help and inspiration had been taken from them, and a hope that such help would soon be restored.

ART INSTRUCTION IN THE EIGHTH GRADE.

The entire omission of any art expression in the eighth grades of the city is exceptional and contrary to practice in other cities. This condition was occasioned by a belief that under existing circumstances a partial substitute was offered in the shopwork for the boys of this grade, and the sewing work for the girls. Such elimination is to be deplored for the more mature expression possible in this grade should link the previous work in the grades with the special opportunities of the high school. This link is broken, and the continuity and sequence disturbed. Refined expression and appreciation of good design and color should be regarded as a necessary equipment in the productive lives of these boys and girls.

There is some variation in the time allowance for art work, but the average is about as follows: Three 30 or two 45 minute periods, a total of 90 minutes per week in grades 1, 2, and 3; 60 minutes per week in grades 4, 5, and 6; 45 minutes per week in grade 7, where art expression in the school life of the pupil in Elyria ends. In most cases this loss is never repaired in later life.

ELEMENTARY INDUSTRIAL ACTIVITIES.

There has been, for years, a generally accepted belief that joyous self expression is essential to childhood and child growth. Primary rooms have become hives of happy industry where children tell in picture language the stories they have heard and read; where they learn reality through plastic clay, and model many things as man did in the childhood of art; where sand tables express some phase of primitive life—the farm, the harvest season, or possibly the children of other lands. With the exception of a very little paper cutting, such opportunities are not provided for the children in the Elyria schools, and their absence is recorded with particular regret. This condition is due in part to meager equipment and supplies, which would prevent even the most enlightened teacher from securing the charming product which these children are capable of creating, and in the creation of which they would experience such rich development.

CORRELATIVE EXPRESSION.

Articulated expression not only adds interest to any subject, but is the vehicle by which mere information may become permanent knowledge and reality itself to the learner. This vital knowledge comes by the way of experience, and this articulated expression is such experience. This principle, generally recognized in map drawing, should not stop there, but should be applied all through geography, language, and literature, history work, etc. Instead of abstract words real images are formed, and thus the pencil becomes an instrument with which to visualize and think into the very realities of life. The lessons of neatness and order, learned through good design teaching, should likewise be translated into beautiful school work—better placing and spacing in written work, and a neatness, care, and real art quality in everything produced.

Included under this heading are all the opportunities for attractive cover designs for numerous booklets, from the spelling lessons and nature leaflets in the primary grades to the history and cooking notes in the advanced grades. Very few of such opportunities are grasped as they should be in the schools of Elyria. This is due in part to teachers' training that may have been defective in this respect, and in part to inadequate supplies, and to lack of supervision.

SUPPLIES AND EQUIPMENT.

The grade rooms of the city are supplied with comparatively inexpensive manila drawing paper. Some water colors have been supplied in each building but in such meager quantities that several rooms are required to use a single set. Colored crayons are purchased by the children. Supplies purchased directly by the individual naturally cost much more than supplies purchased and supplied by the school board.

The variously tinted drawing and construction papers that are such an incentive to art expression and contribute so much to the attractiveness of the result are greatly missed; likewise are objects of interesting form and color that would furnish material for general representative drawing.

Sand tables are in but one or two classrooms in the city. As a consequence the children have no means for community expression suggested by so much of the language, nature study, and geography work in primary grades. The single table observed was a good piece of work by an interested and handy janitor.

Elyria has had good supervision in the past; the ability of her teachers to give elementary instruction in art is as good as the average; her children are as able as any; but their possible accomplishment is limited to the degre that worthy and adequate supplies are limited.

SCHOOLROOM INTERIORS.

We must aim to create a beautiful environment for our boys and girls if we would have them grow up and respond to beauty and express it. The schoolroom which offers nothing but bare walls has departed little from the schoolroom of the past. The walls must be cheery and supply backgrounds of charm for worthy pictures appropriately framed. Some plants and a vase or two, expressive of good design and color, are necessary factors in creating this very desirable environment. Wall paper should be barred from schoolrooms. Walls should be tinted with soft-toned water colors or painted with oil to give a hard, washable surface.

A number of rooms are well supplied with pictures, and in a number of cases these have been procured with money raised by exhibitions. The manual-training department has rendered commendable assistance by framing some of the prints. Teachers deserve great credit for purchasing and caring for the many plants which give such a softening and cheering impression in otherwise cold and formal schoolrooms. In some rooms, principals and teachers, with the assistance of janitors or manual-training teachers, have erected exhibition panels for school work. These invite the orderly and effective display of drawings, written work, etc.

HIGH-SCHOOL ARTS AND CRAFTS COURSE.

This work is offered for four years in what is known as the industrial course. The course is elective, and is provided for girls only. As a consequence the boys of Elyria, after leaving the seventh grade, receive no instruction in free-hand drawing, design, color, and art appreciation, which is so vital in developing the taste that one should find manifested in school shopwork and later in home building and furnishing and in modern business life and in manufactured products. Under the circumstances, the sympathy and intelligent efforts of the dean of the manual-training department to supply this need in a measure is recognized as very commendable.

The number of girls electing this course is fairly proportionate to the number electing classical or commercial courses, and commensurate with such optional choice in other cities. This enrollment, however, appears to be falling off rapidly. Continuity of good art work through all the grades, with special attention paid in the eighth grade and a sympathetic guidance for all entering high school, would develop and direct the natural inclination of a larger number, both boys and girls, toward these excellent art courses.

The course offered in the arts and various crafts is carried out along the lines of the best thought and practices in other cities. The intimate correlation with the work in household arts is to be especially commended, with the hope that other articulation with the boys' handwork may be equally well established. The two teachers engaged in this work are well trained and capable, and they are endowed with capacity for growth that should mean a continuation of good sincere efforts and progressive ideas.

RECOMMENDATIONS.

The restoration, at the earliest possible moment, of a supervisor of art instruction is recommended.

The most fascinating material for inducing expression should be provided. A course of study should be arranged that would win the respectful attention and appreciation through its application to the home, the dress, the school and its varied interests, manufactured products even to town planning and civic beautification.

Through exhibitions of school work and through other means of appropriate publicity the entire community should be kept informed and made appreciative of the intrinsic value of art education.

Serious consideration should be given to the profit such a supervisor makes for a community, as well as to the saving effected through his judicious and economical choice, purchase, and distribution of supplies.

The blackboard should grow in favor as a means for the teacher to elucidate her thought and give graphic expression to her ideas. The pupils likewise should use it as a means for securing freedom in drawing.

At least one hour of art work per week should be required in the eighth grade. This work should embody to some extent design and color related to the boys' shopwork and the girls' home arts work.

In the eighth year, as well as in the fifth, sixth, and seventh years, additional time should be given to drawings illustrating important facts in history, geography, and science work. Lettering, design, and color should be applied to appropriate covers for these notes.

Some art study should be planned and continued through the grades that will create a love for the world's best art, and some acquaintance with the principles and facts underlying it.

Elective courses of such nature should be offered in the high school that any boy or girl may select, under guidance, any work in drawing, design, color, or any of the crafts that would be of service.

Consideration should be given to the probability that the time allotted for the arts and crafts in the industrial course is disproportionately large, compared with the needs and slower processes in the domestic arts.

Some of the pottery products of the craft shop should be donated to some of the grade schools to supply the need for drawing models and school decoration.

There should be established and always continued the closest understanding, articulation of effort, and harmonizing spirit between the work and workers in the high schools and the grade schools.

Students who expect to become teachers should be required to receive preparatory art instruction in the high school, and later in the training course they should receive instruction in methods and practice in teaching art. That instruction should be at least commensurate with the offerings and requirements in other lines. Much of the promise for art education in the future depends upon the ability and interest of the grade teacher.

While the general aim is a broad, democratic one, watchful care should be given to discovering and conserving those who have special gifts, and would, through their higher attainments, bring credit to themselves and the city that made such high attainment possible.

Chapter XII.

HOME ECONOMICS.

EXISTING CONDITIONS.

Sewing is a required study for all seventh and eighth grade girls. It is also given to the small group of girls classified as retarded. Sewing was in the course for girls of the sixth grade until the demand for retrenchments in school expenditures necessitated its elimination. The board of education, finding it impossible to employ an extra teacher for industrial training for the boys of the sixth grade, also abolished the sixth-grade sewing.

Cooking is given in the high-school course, and only to those who elect the entire home-economics course. Sewing and millinery are included in the home-economics work of the high school. Owing to the fact that the home-economics course of the high school is of recent inauguration, not all lines of work have been fully developed.

SEWING IN THE SEVENTH AND EIGHTH GRADES.

Teacher, Miss Geneva E. Chamberlain; salary, $900; employed 10 years. Time, 1 period (1½ hours) per week.

Grade 7B.—1. Model of hemstitching. 2. Application. Hemstitched guest towel or dresser cover with design in cross stitch. 3. Model of seams. French seams. Overcast seams. 4. Making of kimona-nightdress.

Grade 7A.—1. Buttonhole model. 2. Making of kimona. 3. Making of large dress apron.

Grade 8B.—1. Making of underwear set. (*a*) Drawers. Fell seams. (*b*) Petticoat and corset cover or princess slip. (*c*) Crocheted trimming for set and embroidered design if desired.

Grade 8A.—1. Making of cooking uniform. (*a*) Apron. (*b*) Cap. (*c*) Half-sleeves. 2. Middy blouses.

HIGH-SCHOOL COURSE IN HOME ECONOMICS.

Teachers.—One instructor in food preparation and dressmaking, salary, $750; employed 2 years. One instructor in applied design (metal work, clay, linen, millinery), salary, $850; employed 3 years; one assistant, salary, $800; employed 3 years.

Periods per week.—First year: Art, 3; cooking, 2. Second year: Art, 2; millinery, 2; sewing, 1. Third year: Art, 3; household economics (chiefly advanced food preparation), 2. Fourth year (elective): Millinery, 2; advanced sewing, 3; advanced art, 2—one teacher; advanced art, 3—another teacher.

First year.

Domestic science.—Cooking: First and second semesters.—A. Use of textbook. B. Practical cooking lessons. C. Housekeeping. D. Personal hygiene. E. Family table service and menu making. F. Excursions to local markets.

Fine arts.—General: First semester.—A. Plant study. B. Pottery designing and application in clay. C. Designing developed from study of unit. (*a*) Square. (*b*) Circle. (*c*) Border. (*d*) All-over pattern. (*e*) Field pattern.

Second semester.—A. Freehand perspective. B. Object drawing. C. Art history. D. Basketry. E. Lettering. F. Theory of color. G. Pose drawing. H. Stenciling. I. Flower drawing.

Second year.

Fine arts.—Design and crafts: First semester.—A. Review of principles of design. Theory of color. B. Costume designing. C. Bookbinding. D. Applied design, leather.

Second semester.—A. Costume design. B. Applied design, textiles. C. Advanced reed work.

Domestic art.—Millinery: First semester.—A. Drafting of patterns. B. Designing of winter hat. Its application. C. Designing and making of ornament.

Second semester.—A. Wire frame making. B. Designing of spring hat. Its application. C. Embroidery designs applied.

Second semester.—Sewing: A. Machine and hand work. B. Fundamental stitches; making of samples for notebooks. C. Use of commercial patterns. D. Making of undergarments. (*a*) Choice of material, trimmings, and pattern. (*b*) Estimate of cost. E. Making of middy blouse (from design made in fine arts class).

Third year.

Fine arts.—Design and crafts: First semester.—A. Review of principles of: Design and theory of color; house plans; period furniture; constructive and applied design; metal.

Second semester.—A. Interior decorating. B. Constructive and applied design; jewelry.

Domestic science.—Household economics: A. Advanced cooking. B. Invalid cooking. C. Luncheon box. D. Planning and serving meals. E. Marketing. F. Fuel value of foods and requirements. G. Household management. H. Family budget.

Fourth year.

Domestic art.—A. Review of notebooks of second year. B. Alteration of commercial patterns. C. Drafting of underclothes patterns. D. Study of textiles. E. Dressmaking.

Advanced millinery—First semester.—A. Winter hat. B. Making of flowers, berries, ornaments, bows.

Second semester.—A. Renovating of hats, ribbons, flowers, feathers. B. Spring hat. C. Wholesale and retail shop study.

Fine arts.—Advanced design; crafts: A. Advanced costume. B. Advanced interior. C. Posters. D. Figure and still-life study. E. Advanced work in crafts.

FAULTS IN THE HIGH-SCHOOL HOME ECONOMICS COURSE.

The courses in arts and crafts are of vital importance to the home economics work and of necessity closely correlated with it; but arts and crafts should not be considered a part of the home economics department. It should be organized as a service department for the entire school, and its classes should be open alike to the young men and women in all courses.

Under the present organization and division of time, the art studies absorb time rightfully belonging to the home economics studies proper, leaving far too little time for food preparation, clothing and textiles, care of the home, care of the sick, and home administration.

The course is an art course with a home economics inclination; it is not a home economics course strengthened by accessory courses in art. The relation of art instruction to home economics should be similar to that of chemistry, physics, botany, and physiology—absolutely essential but separate and independent. Art should not encroach upon the time rightfully belonging to purely home economics instruction.

It is unreasonable to require that students spend two laboratory periods for one entire year on millinery, when sewing is required but one year and but once a week in that year. The chief function of a millinery course is to teach intelligent choice of materials, and to give to the student ability to handle hat fabrics and trimmings with deftness. One semester of teaching should accomplish this, and further courses should be offered as electives if at all.

Since the students enter without elementary school preparation in cooking, the present food preparation instruction is too limited in extent.

There is an entire absence of courses in household sanitation, personal hygiene, home nursing, and meal service.

SCHOOL LUNCHES.

One hundred and fourteen mothers who answered the questionnaire sent to them believe that a noon lunch served at the school would be advantageous. A casual visitor in Elyria can not fail to notice the large number of unoccupied students who frequent the business district during the long noon period. This noon idleness presents other objectionable possibilities than the waste of time during the best part of the school day.

A lunch served at the high school by the school authorities would have many advantages: It would make possible a shorter noon period and consequently a shorter school day; it would care for the nonresident student in a better manner; and it would make possible the most desirable type of practice in food preparation for the home economic students.

In schools in which the noon lunch is under the direction of the home economics teacher and the regular classes prepare some of the food, it has been found that the food can be sold at a low price and is of excellent quality. It is usually necessary to have some hired help in order that the time of students need not be used for the heavier tasks.

The room now used by the students as a lunch room would be ample and satisfactory for the purpose. Dr. Bobbitt was right in saying:

> It is sufficiently absurd for the high school to teach textbook dietetics at one hour during the day, and then violate every dictum of such dietetics at the luncheon hour. The domestic science people need to be put in charge of the preparation and the serving of the luncheon. The schools can not afford to throw away such an excellent training opportunity.[1]

ROOMS AND EQUIPMENT.

Elementary schools.—The sewing in the seventh and eighth grades is done at two centers: The one in the Gates School; the other in the old high-school building.

The room at the Gates School into which the classes were moved in October is suitable in every way. There is a good floor, ample blackboard room, an abundance of light, sufficient space, and from it the students have access to water for washing.

The room in use in the old high school is not clean, is heated with difficulty, and the sanitary conditions in the basement make this building a menace to health.

These two centers are reached fairly easily by all children, and the going to and from the classes works a hardship in but few cases.

The tables in use are but temporary, and improved ones are under construction by the boys in the woodworking classes. The chairs are unsuited to the purpose and unsuited to the size of the children. Comfortable chairs are essential for sewing.

At the time of inspection the number of sewing machines was limited to four. Two of these were so old as to be valueless.

The present arrangement, that students in sewing come for one-half of the morning or one-half of the afternoon session, makes the transference from the regular classroom to the sewing room fairly easy, for the students make the change from building to building either at the beginning of a session or at recess.

High school.—The present inclusion of art instruction in the home economics department results in four so-called home economics classrooms in the Technical High School building.

One of these is on the third floor and is fully equipped with modern desks, stoves, and utensils for food preparation classes.

These desks are arranged in the usual hollow square, and are supplied with individual stoves.

Adjoining the laboratory is a room evidently designed as a dining room.

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[1] Page 42, "The San Antonio Public School System," Bobbitt.

There is a small hall or entry leading from the dining room to the main hall and a supply pantry is connected with the food laboratory.

One room used for art is on this floor, the others are on the first floor. The room used for sewing and millinery is not so large nor so well lighted as a room devoted to these purposes should be. The equipment is fair for existing needs.

SUGGESTIONS FOR IMPROVEMENT.

The present sewing room in the Gates School or one equally good should be permanently given to the sewing teacher. This room should be supplied with enough machines to have at least one good machine for every four girls. Comfortable chairs of different heights should be supplied, so that the children need not sit in fatiguing positions.

In the Gates building there is considerable space not now profitably used. This is practically true of the teachers' rest rooms on both the first and second floors. The rest room on the first floor is large enough for the teachers. Practice apartments or houses are now considered an essential part of home economics equipment; it is suggested that the rest rooms on the second floor of the Gates building be converted into a practice apartment for the eighth-grade girls. Practice in housekeeping, meal service to teachers, and practical lessons in home nursing could thus be given. The rooms should serve as sewing rooms when so needed. The room adjoining the rest room on the first floor is not in use at present and could be arranged for the use of the medical examiners on their regular visits.

If the old building on the Gates School ground is not unsafe, a room in it should be equipped for general cooking classes. The fact that it does not heat well should be less objectionable for cooking classes than for classes in which the children are quietly seated. In any room arranged for general cooking classes there should be, if possible, a good coal or wood range which may be used for teaching the management of such stoves and for giving additional heat in very cold weather.

The present sewing room in the Lincoln building should be abandoned unless better sanitary conditions can be obtained. If the plumbing of the building can be made modern and sanitary, the present sewing room can be converted with little cost into an admirable practice apartment, and other rooms can be used for general cooking and for sewing. If this building can not be thus adapted, other arrangements should be made immediately.

When a building is placed on the school property in the Hungarian village, especial consideration should be given to convenient and suitable rooms for home economics teaching. If this locality furnishes a considerable number of school children who do not reach the high school, accommodations should be arranged for classes devoting one-half of each day to home-making lessons. Here, also, classes for adult women and employed girls could profitably be arranged.

In this locality a practice cottage should be constructed which would exhibit good sanitary living conditions such as would be within the reach of workers earning the average wage.

In the high school certain adjustments of rooms could readily be made. If the art courses be restricted as suggested, one room could be made available for other uses. The first-floor room, now used as a sewing room, is too small for the kind of sewing that should be given. There is on the third floor a most desirable room now used as a study room. This room should be equipped with sewing tables, cutting tables, lockers for students' materials, wardrobes for hanging partially made garments, and sewing machines in sufficient numbers to enable the students to work with system and without delay.

With the equipment of the present dining room and with a slight addition to the present laboratory equipment, it will be possible to give practical courses in meal preparation and service. In all schools where this type of work is introduced, it has been found possible to secure a number of teachers who are willing to take their noon meal regularly at the school, and thus afford an opportunity for the students to practice in marketing, cooking, and serving food under conditions approximating those of a home.

Experience in the care of a home should be a part of the home economics course. In the Elyria High School the only practice place easily obtainable is the room now used as a teachers' rest room. Using this as a practice room would interfere but little with its present use and would afford an opportunity for actual practice in household decoration and care.

DESIRABLE CHANGES.

Home economics should be so taught in the grades that an intelligent girl may discover her special abilities and be able to decide whether dressmaking, housekeeping or food preparation is sufficiently interesting to her to influence her to take vocational courses along any of those lines.

It should be so well taught that the girl completing the eighth grade should command the requisite technique for the satisfactory discharge of simple household duties, and be intelligent in her choice of materials and processes.

The high-school course in home economics should establish in the minds of every high-school woman right ideas concerning home administration; the expenditure of money; the principles which should govern the choice of home sites; the furnishing and the proper maintenance of a home; the relation of the individual home to the community at large; the protection of the health of the occupants of the house and the care of the sick. Her knowledge of food, its choice, purchase, preparation, and service, should be increased, and based on a scientific foundation. Her taste and skill in the fabrication of garments and the choice of textiles should be developed. Her sense of social and economic responsibility and a recognition of her duties as an American citizen should have been awakened.

To accomplish all of this a different type of course in home economics must be established in the Elyria schools, and the following is recommended:

Fifth-grade girls.—Three hours a week in sewing and simple lessons in housekeeping.

Sixth-grade girls.—Three hours a week in clothing and small recipe food preparation.

Seventh-grade girls.—One-half day, twice a week in clothing, food preparation, and lessons in sanitation and personal hygiene.

Eighth-grade girls.—One half day, twice a week in clothing, meal preparation, marketing, and care of the home.

Selected group of students.—Overage or retarded and those who will probably be unable to enter the high school with profit. One-half of each school day in thoroughly practical work in sewing, food preparation, and housekeeping.

Ninth grade or first-year high school.—Two hours daily required of all girls in all courses. This year should be a survey course with time equally divided between foods, textiles, and clothing, and household sanitation and care.

TRANSITION FROM THE PRESENT TO THE NEW CONDITIONS.

Recognizing that so radical a change with its increased cost can not be accomplished within a year, or even two, the following suggestions are offered that it may be attained by the end of three years:

To establish the course as suggested, fifth and sixth grade students will need the same instruction during the first year, and this may consist entirely of sewing done in the classroom by classroom teachers under the direction of the home economics supervisor. This will obviate the need of extra teachers for this work in these classes for the first year.

The seventh-grade students may be given food preparation only during one-half of this first year and sewing only for one-half year, and the same arrangement can be made for the eighth-grade students, thus decreasing by one-half the teaching force required for these classes.

During the first year of reorganization the "survey course" may be given to all first-year high-school girls, and but two lines of elective home economics may be offered to the advanced students. One, a strong course in textiles and clothing, five times a week. Two recitation periods and three double periods for laboratory, equaling one credit. The other course should be one-half year in food preparation and service, with time divided as before, and one-half year in dietetics and meal service.

During the second year of the transition period the incoming sixth-grade students should have a special teacher and be taught the use of the sewing machine and simple housekeeping. The incoming fifth-grade class should be taught by the regular teachers as during previous year. The seventh and eighth grade work should be managed as during the previous year. The high-school courses should continue as during the first year, with a third year of electives offered for those who have finished the previous two years' elective. This third elective should be devoted to the home. Home administration, home sanitation, home nursing, household furnishing, and decoration should compose this course.

By the third year the complete and well-organized course should be inaugurated with full and regular work throughout the upper four elementary grades and four high-school years. First-year high-school work will then need to be modified to fit the better prepared students coming from the eighth grade.

The fourth-year high-school elective should consist of advanced dressmaking and advanced work in marketing and food preparation.

For the three years above the first, all home economics should be elective and should be recommended especially to those students who will probably not enter a college offering a home economics course.

REQUIRED TEACHING FORCE.

The changes described will necessitate six special teachers of home economics in the grades and three special teachers in the high school, with a supervisor who will teach one-half time. At present four teachers and a part-time supervisor will be sufficient.

One year of art should be required of all students majoring in home economics and should be elective for all students, both young men and young women. Under the present financial conditions in the Elyria schools the desirability of offering so many lines of work in fine arts may well be questioned. It seems probable that for one and perhaps for two years one teacher of fine arts will be able to administer all required work and also offer one or two lines of electives.

OPINIONS OF MOTHERS.

A questionnaire sent to the mothers of students in sewing classes in the grades and in home economics classes in the high school resulted in 134 answers. Of the mothers who answered, 110 were born in the United States, and 24 were foreign born. Many mothers stated that they knew nothing of the work given and hence could not express an opinion as to desirable improvements. The real test of home economics teaching is the degree to which it functions in the home life of the girl. If its effect is unrecognizable by the mother, there must be some weakness in the teaching.

One hundred mothers thought cooking the most important school study in home economics; yet no food instruction is given below the high school. Only seven considered millinery most important; yet the millinery course is required twice a week for an entire year and is elective in the senior year for an equal time. Sixty mothers emphasize the value of sewing; yet it is given but once a week during one year in the high-school home economics course. Only one mother ranks arts and crafts as of great importance; yet the home economics course requires three days per week in the first year, two days per week in the second year, three days per week in the third year, and offers two elective art courses in the fourth year.

The greater majority of mothers expressed their appreciation of the need of hot lunches, if they are well prepared. At present 183 tuition-paying students in the high school remain in or near the school buildings during the noon intermission. These facts indicate the importance of the opportunity offered the home ecnomics department to give practical instruction in preparing lunches.

ANSWERS BY MOTHERS TO CERTAIN QUESTIONS.

Question. What do you consider the most valuable part of the home economics instruction in the high school?

Answers. One hundred mothers replied, cooking; 60, sewing; 18, housekeeping; 7, millinery; 7, baking; 4, dressmaking; 4, buying; 2, mending; 2, interior decoration; 1, nursing; 1 art and craft work; 1, canning; 5, meal preparation.

Question. What improvement do you suggest?

Answers. Eleven mothers replied, devote more time and work to home economics; 10, better equipment for sewing and cooking; 8, make work more practicable; 8, have cooking and more general housekeeping in the grades; 4, adopt the best methods; 1, eliminate jewelry and metal work; 1, furnish all materials free; 1, substitute sewing for art in the first year if parents so desire; 1, coordination with the home; 1, improved sanitation; 1, improved rooms.

Question. Should the school provide hot lunches for the pupils?

Answer. One hundred and fourteen mothers replied, yes; 13, no.

AFTERNOON AND EVENING CLASSES.

A personal investigation leads to the conclusion that of the hundreds of women workers in Elyria's factories not more than 3 per cent have received high-school education, and very few have a knowledge of home economics. It is true that these workers are not the product of Elyria's schools, and in the majority of cases are not residents of Elyria, but come and go on the interurban and steam lines; yet it is probable that many of these young women and others like them will establish homes and rear families in Elyria and thus become contributors to the problems of the schools of the city.

Elyria has also a rapidly increasing number of wives and mothers who have little knowledge of the English language and but slight familiarity with American ideas of sanitary and attractive homes and American standards for the education and care of children. To these new comers Elyria owes assistance and instruction, since Americanization must start in the home life if it is to be genuine and complete.

Afternoon or evening classes should be maintained for the mothers in different parts of the town. With the right woman in charge, much valuable instruction could be given in the Hungarian section and other classes, for young housekeepers would receive support in different sections of the city.

The Young Women's Christian Association is doing genuine educational work. It may be questioned if it is good policy to leave for a philanthropic association work which is really a community responsibility.

Saturday afternoon classes and perhaps evening classes should be established for the young women in manufacturing establishments. A reasonable charge might be made for instruction given to nonresident students, but to residents of Elyria these extension courses should be free.

RECOMMENDATIONS.

1. Make of arts and crafts a separate elective course in the high school, open to boys as well as girls.
2. Give a prevocational aspect to the instruction in home economics in the grades and in the first high-school year.
3. Make home economics a required subject for all girls from the fifth grade to the first high-school year, inclusive; an elective in the second, third, and fourth high-school years.
4. Make the necessary changes gradually over a period of three years.
5. When the new conditions are fully established, employ one supervisor of home economics teaching part-time, six special teachers of home making in the grades, and three special teachers for home economics in the high school and for night and special classes.
6. Shorten the noon intermission, and provide hot lunches to high-school teachers and students.
7. Organize afternoon and evening classes for adults and for young women employed during the day.
8. Provide more sewing machines, better equipment in particulars enumerated, and make specified changes in the use of rooms.
9. Include laboratories for home economics in all plans for new buildings.
10. Construct a "model cottage" in the Hungarian section of the city and equip a "practice apartment" in the high school.

Chapter XIII.

MANUAL TRAINING.

The latest published course of study for the elementary schools for the year 1914–15, under the caption "Incidental Instruction," states:

> All boys in the sixth, seventh, and eighth grades shall be given one lesson each week in mechanical drawing and benchwork.
>
> The girls of the same classes and at the same times shall be given lessons in practical sewing.

During the school year 1916–17 the teaching force was reduced, and the work in manual training was limited to the seventh and eighth grades.

Handwork is not mentioned in the outline of studies for the lower grades. Consequently, nothing is attempted in this direction, with the exception of the occasional experiments of a few of the more energetic and progressive grade teachers.

GRADES 1 TO 6.

While there is considerable diversity in methods of introducing and carrying on the work, there is widespread recognition among educators of the importance of the manual arts in the elementary school. Elyria has followed the example and practice of many other cities in selecting the seventh and eighth years as the point at which to introduce manual training into the elementary school. Nevertheless, a better method of procedure would be to introduce the work first in the lower grades. The more important reasons for this course may be enumerated as follows:

(1) The handwork of the lower grades cost very much less for materials and equipment than the shopwork of the upper grades, and the enrollment in the lower grades is larger than that of the upper grades; consequently a much larger number of pupils can be benefited by the expenditure of a given amount of money in the lower grades than in the upper.

(2) The more intensive manual arts courses of the later years lose much of their effectiveness unless a suitable foundation is laid in the elementary handwork courses.

(3) Even under the most favorable conditions it is difficult to develop numerous points of contact between the shopwork and the other

studies of the seventh and eighth grades and to bring about a natural correlation between the activities of the shop teacher and the regular grade teacher. It is much easier to accomplish these ends in the light of the experience gained in administering the handwork of the earlier grades, where the points of relationship between the handwork and the other phases of school work are more numerous, more patent, and more susceptible of development.

AIMS AND PURPOSES.

Handwork in the elementary school may be employed for the accomplishment of at least three distinct educational ends: (1) To develop manipulative skill and the ability to "do things"; (2) to impart knowledge of materials and processes of construction; and (3) to vitalize the instruction in various subjects of study, such as geography, history, and language.

Young children have neither the muscular control nor the interest to enable them to follow spontaneously a program confined chiefly to the accomplishment of the first of these aims. A high degree of technical skill can be acquired by young children in certain directions, but only at the sacrifice of other values. Nevertheless, the child enjoys the manipulative processes, and although results are crude at first, his ideals are capable of cultivation, and from grade to grade increasing emphasis may be placed on accuracy and precision of workmanship, a progressive technical control keeping pace with a developing muscular system and a growing subjective demand. Necessarily the work also contributes to the child's growth through knowledge of materials and processes employed.

The methods and processes which are utilized to accomplish the third of these aims are well adapted to the instincts and capacities of children in the lower grades. Most children have the ingenuity and the imagination to enjoy these activities and to participate in them with profit. The work includes the arrangement on the sand table of the settings of various stories which form part of the instruction in reading and of scenes and events selected from the fields of history and geography. It includes also the making of small articles that serve some purpose in the schoolroom, as well as the representations of a considerable variety of objects taken up in the course of the regular studies; such as, the implements used in carding, spinning, weaving, etc., methods of transportation, types of tools and utensils, and the like.

Work of this character, like that of the type first mentioned, has a twofold educational value for young children: It serves to illustrate and vitalize the instruction in the regular studies by giving a richness of meaning to words and ideas through concrete expression, thus making the instruction more effective; and it also serves in a very definite way to extend the child's field of knowledge and experience through acquaintance with a variety of materials, their most obvious properties and uses, and, to a limited extent, their sources and methods of preparation for commercial use.

In general, it may be said that work of the first type is of value chiefly as discipline, for the development of technic, muscular coordination and control, and for the development of ideals, not only of artistic excellence and fitness of an object to its purpose but also of good workmanship and the relation between effort and achievement. It is important in handwork which has these objects in view to maintain constantly progressive ideals of excellence in workmanship and design and to undertake only such constructions and processes as are reasonably within the capacities of the children. Activities of the second type are of value chiefly for the contribution to the effectiveness of instruction in other subjects and for the opportunity afforded for the free play of the child's imagination in self-expression and self-direction. Here also progressive standards of technical excellence should be applied, but not to the extent of discouraging the child from thinking and acting independently. The emphasis should be on spontaneity and the general effect to be produced by the representation rather than upon process and technic.

Both types of work, as suggested herein, have important places in the education of young children, and should be provided in all the elementary schools of Elyria.

GRADES 7 AND 8.

The most serious criticisms that have been directed against current practice in manual training in these grades are that the work tends to become too formal, and that the range of activities covered is too narrowly restricted. The practical difficulties involved in administering a shop under school conditions have frequently led to an objectionable formality in instruction and rigidity in method of procedure, and too often the shop instruction has been limited to a course in woodworking.

With respect to the first criticism, it must be evident that manual training loses much of its educational value when it is reduced to a routine in which the instructor does most of the thinking and planning, while the activities of the pupils consist chiefly in following detailed directions. With respect to the second criticism, it is to be said that, if time permitted, manual training could be made much more interesting and profitable by adding to the woodwork a variety of processes selected from a number of other fields, such as printing and bookbinding, simple metal work, electricity, cement, and concrete.

These criticisms apply to the manual training in the Elyria schools to a certain extent, though it should be made clear that the criticisms apply to the conditions under which the work is done. rather than to the efficiency of the use which is made of existing facilities and opportunities.

TIME ALLOWANCE.

No provision is made during the current year for handwork below the seventh year. In the seventh and eighth grades one lesson per week is given, nominally 90 minutes in length.

With a school year of 38 weeks the aggregate maximum amount of time for shopwork is 57 hours per year, or 7⅛ days of 8 hours each.

Even this small amount of time is subject to diminution because of occasional interruptions. It seems clear, therefore, that the proper conditions have not been provided to insure the maximum benefits from manual training. The fact that results deemed worth while are attainable even under this inadequate allowance of time justifies the contention that more and better results may be expected with more time.

EQUIPMENT.

The equipment for manual training for the seventh and eighth grades consists of two shop centers, one in the high-school building and the other at the Gates School. The former is in use three entire mornings each week, one entire afternoon, and half time on four afternoons—in the aggregate about three-fifths of the regular school time. The latter is in use two mornings each week, or about one-fifth of the regular school time. The time devoted to manual training in these grades could therefore be doubled without using the equipment to its full capacity.

The shops are fitted with work benches and tools adapted to the kinds of work that may be profitably undertaken with classes of boys in the time allowed. The shop in the high-school building is satisfactory. It is near the other shops in the same building, and any item of equipment lacking in the grade shop may be readily procured.

The Gates School shop is located in the old building, which has all the unattractiveness of outlived usefulness. The rooms occupied for manual training are somewhat crowded. A power drill, tool grinder, and circular-saw bench are located in an unheated room, detached from the shop in which the pupils work.

THE COURSE OF STUDY.

The course of study for the seventh and eighth grades consists of the construction of a series of small objects intended for personal or home use. As outlined for 1916–17, these include: First semester—pen tray, paper cutter, coat hanger, tie rack; second semester—brush-broom holder, cup-and-saucer rack, pressing board, tool box, and two small pieces of simple furniture, to be selected by the pupil. *Eighth year:* First semester—sled, cutting board; second semester—taboret, jewel box, and a piece of simple furniture, to be selected by the pupil. Each boy pays the cost of the material in each article he makes for himself. These projects are supplemented from time to time by the construction of various articles of furniture and apparatus for the school, involving sometimes individual and sometimes community effort.

The course has been planned to introduce the use of the principal woodworking hand tools and processes, simple wood finishing, and a few processes in cold metals. The course of study and methods of instruction are similar to those observed in many other cities, the quality of work being somewhat above the average. Under the prevailing conditions of large classes, limited time, and restricted facilities it is difficult to devise courses and methods that will involve a greater variety of activities and accomplish more for the time and energy expended.

The department is making a commendable effort to work out a program for a special ungraded class of boys, meeting one period (45 minutes) daily in the shop. This experiment would undoubtedly be more fruitful of results if the amount of time were doubled or trebled, and the instructor permitted to make an aggressive attack on his problem.

The prevocational aim receives no adequate consideration in the manual-training program, and the same is to be said of vocational guidance.

THE HIGH SCHOOL.

The announcement of the Elyria High School for 1916–17 contains outlines of the following courses:

(1) Classical course, college preparatory; offers the possibility of electing, in the freshman year, one credit in general science or manual training or arts and crafts.

(2) Commercial course; offers the possibility of electing, in the freshman year, one credit in manual training or arts and crafts.

(3) Industrial course, preparing for the engineering college, or for industry; 4.5 credits in mechanical drawing and shopwork, and 11 credits in language, history, mathematics, and science.

(4) In addition to the high-school course there is offered a special or vocational course, six years in length, beginning in grade 7. Approximately one-third of the time in grades 7 and 8 is assigned to shopwork, and one-half of the time in grades 9 to 12 is assigned to shopwork and mechanical drawing.

According to the announcement, boys are assigned to this special course by the superintendent "after careful consideration of each case, including conference with the teacher and parent of the child."

The aim is to fit boys who would otherwise drop out of school for efficient industrial work. It is not presumed that graduates from it will have covered a full apprenticeship course in any line, but it is hoped that they will find an occupation in which they may become good workmen.

The course of study theoretically covers the seventh and eighth grades and four years in the high school. The 13 elementary school boys in attendance, however, were doing sixth as well as seventh and eighth grade work. The time is divided equally between academic and manual work. Arithmetic is effectively correlated with shop problems. A history recitation observed was stimulating and full of interest. The discussion turned on our relations with Germany, and the pupils raised all sorts of questions pertaining to our international relations. They were evidently reading the papers and thinking, and they needed no prodding.

EQUIPMENT.

The equipment in the high-school building includes the following:

Grade manual training shop, already mentioned, approximately 48 by 38 feet; occupied three entire mornings and one afternoon period weekly by grade classes, one afternoon period daily by high-school classes; contains 21 single work benches, grindstone, band-saw, demonstration theater.

Cabinet shop, approximately 40 by 25 feet; occupied one period daily by special ungraded class; contains 16 single benches.

Lathe and pattern shop, approximately 40 by 25 feet; occupied six periods daily by high-school classes, except last five weeks of year, when one class takes foundry practice two periods daily; contains 15 single benches, 11 wood-turning lathes, demonstration theater.

Foundry, approximately 40 by 25 feet; occupied two periods daily for five weeks by high-school class; contains small iron cupola and equipment for 16 students.

Forge shop, approximately 45 by 30 feet; occupied two periods daily in the morning and two periods daily in the afternoon; contains 16 down-draft forges, with anvils and tools.

Mechanical drawing-room, approximately 50 by 25 feet; occupied eight periods daily; contains 24 single drafting tables.

The cost of equipment, including the Gates School shop, is approximately as follows:

Gates School shop	$750
Grade manual training shop (high-school building)	1,000
Cabinet shop	550
Lathe and pattern shop	1,700
Foundry	900
Forge shop	1,200
Mill room	1,200
Mechanical drawing-room (including additional equipment in storage)	400
Total	$7,700

The number of wood-turning lathes appears to be somewhat in excess of the requirements of the present enrollment of students and course of study, and a rearrangement of the equipment, as suggested by the instructor in charge of the lathe and pattern shop, has been approved. Aside from this, the benches, machines, and tools have been well selected and arranged, and the equipment generally shows evidence of careful use.

The fact that a part of the equipment is not used to its full capacity appears to be due, partly at least, to the reduction of the teaching staff. The foundry and forge shop will not be used to capacity for some time to come, but if a more liberal and aggressive policy were inaugurated it is doubtful if the remainder of the equipment would prove more than adequate.

A room approximately 40 by 100 feet has been set aside for a machine shop, to be equipped at a later date, when fourth-year classes are ready, and when prices for equipment return to normal levels.

COURSES OF STUDY.

The arrangement of courses of study in the Elyria high school does not encourage boys generally to take the work in manual training. Since students in the classical and commercial courses are limited to the possibility of electing one credit only in manual training, it practically means that only those take this work who elect either the industrial course or the special vocational course. The industrial course is intended to prepare for the engineering college or for entrance into industry, and the special vocational course is planned for boys "who would otherwise drop out of school," and who presumably are contemplating employment in the industries. It may be assumed, therefore, that with few exceptions only those boys elect these courses who already have reason to expect to follow industrial careers. For such boys the work has a measure of vocational value, so far as it goes.

The policy appears to ignore (1) the potential value of manual training and mechanical drawing as a part of the general education of all normal boys, and (2) the prevocational value of these lines of work when properly presented to boys who desire to discover their own native talents and how to make the most of them.

The same courses and methods can not well be made to serve all three aims: Vocational, prevocational, and general education. If the dominant aim is to continue to be vocational, it is advisable to modify some of the work in order to bring it in closer accord with the requirements of the industries. The courses in forging, pattern making, and architectural drafting, as now given, seem to meet these requirements better than the others. Observation of the work in machine design suggests the possibility that the student occasionally may accept a principle and produce a drawing which he does not fully understand. The methods followed in the cabinetmaking course are better adapted to realize the general education aim than the vocational aim. In both of the courses just mentioned, and, perhaps, in certain others, there are indications that the pressure of anxiety to cover the ground of the course has caused the instructor to do some of the thinking and planning and preparation of material that should form a part of the student's experience.

The special, or vocational, course represents a progressive move, and with proper encouragement should render a valuable service. Its advantages should be made available to more pupils. Boys who enroll in this course spend two periods (90 minutes) daily in shopwork, and devote the remainder of the school time to reading, writing, arithmetic, and geography in the seventh year, and to reading, arithmetic, physiology, and English in the eighth. Beginning with the ninth year, one-half of each day (2.5 hours) is spent in drawing and shopwork, and one-half in academic subjects. As outlined in the prospectus, the drawing includes mechanical and architectural drawing; the shopwork includes wood turning, gas fitting, plumbing, forging, electricity, pattern making, molding, foundry, machine shop, cabinetmaking, machine woodworking, though not all of these courses are actually given. About one hour daily is devoted to arithmetic and industrial geography, and the remaining hour and one-half is assigned to reading, writing, spelling, history, civics, simple accounts, and elementary science.

The special course is an adaptation of the plan of the elementary industrial school or prevocational school, which is being tried in a number of cities. The Elyria authorities are to be commended for their progressive attitude. Further additions to the equipment available will be necessary before the plan can be carried out in its entirety.

THE MANUAL-TRAINING STAFF.

There are five instructors, of whom one teaches full time, mechanical, architectural, and machine drawing; one teaches full time, pattern making, cabinetmaking, and foundry; one teaches full time, seventh and eighth grade manual training, and one class in advanced cabinetmaking; one teaches half time, forging; one teaches one class daily—the special ungraded class.

TRAINING AND EXPERIENCE.

Of the five members of the staff, one reports no schooling above high-school grade; three have had some professional normal training; two have had brief courses in business college; three have taken correspondence school courses; and two have had some college or university work. Disregarding the correspondence course, and estimating a summer school course as one-fourth year, the average amount of schooling above high-school grade for the five members of the staff is 1.4 years.

The staff includes one instructor now teaching in his first year, one who has taught 5 years (prior to September 1, 1916), two who have taught 9 years each, and one who has taught 27 years, the average being 10 years.

EXPERIENCE IN OTHER OCCUPATIONS.

The possibility of developing at least a limited variety of vocational courses is suggested by the record of experience in occupations other than teaching. Two instructors have had 1 year, one has had 4 years, one has had 7 years, and one has had 43 years of experience in occupations other than teaching, averaging 11.2 years each. The list includes 12 different occupations, as follows: Blacksmithing, cabinetmaking and furniture factory, carpentry, clerking in store, farming, foundry, machine-shop work, millwrighting, paper mill work, pattern making, selling subscriptions and advertising, stone quarry work.

TRAINING SINCE ENTERING THE SERVICE.

In response to the question, "What courses have you taken in normal school, college, university, correspondence school, etc., for the purpose of improving your work, since entering the service of the Elyria school?" three instructors report as follows: One has taken five summer-school courses in institutions offering special courses for the preparation of manual arts teachers, and four correspondence courses; one has taken a nine weeks' course in a normal school; one has taken three summer-school courses in a State university, one-half year in a business college, and two correspondence courses. This is a very creditable showing for the three instructors, and indicates a commendable disposition to study the special problems of the manual arts and to endeavor to keep abreast of progress in this rapidly developing field. One of the other two instructors is teaching this year for the first time, and the other has been in the Elyria school system only four years.

The board of education would be justified in taking the position that the rapid evolution of educational ideals and practices lays upon every teacher the obligation of following some plan of definite and systematic study of education. If such professional study be desirable for regular teachers, it is practically indispensable for teachers in the special field of the manual arts, where much experimental work remains to be done, especially in relation to programs and methods of procedure.

PROFESSIONAL READING.

The members of the manual-training staff were asked to state the titles of a few of the most important books on education which they had read during the past two years. In response to this question, one instructor gave no report, while four reported a total of 13 books read, as follows: Standards in Education. All the Children of All the People. Forging. Foundry Practice. Social Psychology. The Modern School. Vocational Guidance. The Teacher and the Child. High School Problems. Schools and Administration. How to Study. Rural Problems. The Portland Survey.

Of the four instructors, one reported one book read, one reported two books, one reported three, and one reported seven. No two instructors reported the same book.

In response to the question, "What educational periodicals do you read regularly?" the five instructors reported an average of three magazines each. One instructor reported one magazine, one reported two magazines, one reported three, one reported four, and one reported five. The list, which includes eight different magazines, is as follows, together with the number of teachers by whom each is read: Architectural Record, 1; Industrial Arts Magazine, 3; Manual Training Magazine, 4; Ohio Educational Monthly, 3; Ohio Teacher, 1; Pathfinder, 1; School and Society, 1; School Century, 1.

The facts presented in connection with the two foregoing lists may be accepted as evidence of a desire for improvement on the part of the manual-training teachers. This disposition should be encouraged by those in authority. A supervisor could accomplish much by organizing the staff into a study class for the purpose of systematic reading and discussion. The number of books read should be many times greater.

Additional evidence of a wholesome professional attitude is found in the memberships in educational organizations reported. Of the five instructors, one is a member of one professional association, one is a member of three associations, two are members of four associations each, and one maintains membership in five associations. Six different organizations are represented. The list, together with the number of teachers reporting membership in each, is as follows: Cleveland Manual Training Club, 3; Lorain County Manual Training Club, 2; Lorain County Schoolmasters' Club, 5; Northeastern Ohio Teachers' Association, 4; Ohio Industrial Arts Association, 1; Ohio State Teachers' Association, 2.

RECOMMENDATIONS OFFERED BY THE STAFF.

Four members of the staff, in response to a request, o gestion as to ways in which the work of the departmen improved. Their suggestions may be summarized as follo

Relating to organization and administration: 1. A supervisor More instructors needed. 3. Too many pupils, and too many teacher, in some cases. 4. More and better coordination of w 5. Insufficient time to do required work thoroughly. 6. Too many incorrigible boys in special classes. 7. More conferences of sh needed.

Relating to course of study and methods: 1. More judicious materials. 2. More reference material needed. 3. More efficient ence material available. 4. Textbooks for supplementary work in s

Relating to physical conditions: 1. More money needed for eq maintenance. 2. More judicious selection of equipment. 3. Bet ment of equipment. 4. Stereopticon or reflectoscope, or both, nee letic field and gymnasium needed.

These suggestions afford material with which the staff i proceed at once upon an aggressive program of improvem velopment of the department, if given the right kind of In the attempt to establish a new line of work in the s the manual arts, it is a mistaken policy to "save money" nating efficient and authoritative supervision. The mem manual-training staff are agreed in the opinion that the seriously handicapped without a supervisor.

SUMMARY.

The impressions of the manual-training staff may be s as follows:

(1) There is a considerable range of individual quali respect to professional preparation and experience.

(2) In respect to professional ability, personality, an strength, the staff is probably equal, if not superior, to in other cities of Elyria's class.

(3) The inspiration that might be contributed by the of a competent supervisor is conspicuous by its absence. is the work of the several members of the staff imperfec nated but there is lack of definiteness and direction in t ual efforts toward building up the department as well as t fessional self-development.

(4) The professional reading and study reported by th of the staff suggests a lack of definiteness of method an as well as lack of acquaintance with some of the best of literature in this special field.

RECOMMENDATIONS.

1. *Supervisor.*—The next step to be taken in connection with manual training in the Elyria schools is the appointment of a capable supervisor, who, under the direction of the superintendent, should be responsible for the administration of all the manual training and vocational classes from the first grade through the high school. He should personally direct the details of the work in grades 7 to 12, inclusive. An assistant supervisor, preferably a woman, should be appointed, to whom should be assigned the task of introducing and directing the handwork in grades 1 to 6, under the general direction of the supervisor.

The duties of the supervisor should be to organize the department, to supervise and direct the work of the instruction in mechanical, architectural, and machine drawing, and shopwork, to secure better coordination of the work of the various courses, to arrange regular conferences of the special teachers for discussion of the problems of the department, to organize the staff into a group for professional reading and study, and to make necessary arrangements for equipment and supplies. He should be a man worthy of a salary of at least $1,500, and should not give more than half time to teaching.

The duties of the assistant supervisor should be to confer with the regular teachers in grades 1 to 6, assisting them to introduce such types of handwork as they are now prepared to handle, and to meet the teachers in small groups for the purpose of instructing them in the technic of such additional lines of work as it may be decided to introduce. She should also prepare outlines of courses, detailed directions for procedure, and arrange for necessary equipment and supplies. She should give not more than half time to teaching, and the salary for this position should be at least $1,200.[1]

2. *Elementary handwork.*—Steps should be taken to bring the Elyria schools in line with educational progress through the introduction of a well-organized scheme of handwork for grades 1 to 6. This work should have in view the aims suggested in the foregoing discussion. In the beginning the lines of work should be selected to meet the capacities of the various teachers to handle them, but notice should be given that after a reasonable time (say September 1, 1921) grade teachers would be expected to teach the handwork outlined in the course of study. A departmentalized system in grades 4, 5, and 6 may be encouraged, by which one teacher in a building would be responsible for the handwork for the boys, another the handwork for the girls, another the music, and so on.

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[1] This recommendation becomes inoperative if the recommendation made in Chapter III, Administration and Supervision, be adopted, namely, that a primary supervisor be appointed who is qualified to direct the handwork in grades 1 to 6.

3. *Time allotment.*—During the introductory period from 30 to 60 minutes per week should be allowed for handwork, but the school program and course of study should be readjusted gradually to a more liberal allowance. At first it may be objected that it is impossible to add handwork as a new subject to a curriculum already crowded. That this is not a fair statement of what is proposed, however, will become evident after the teachers have had opportunity to experiment with the work under favorable conditions. Ultimately it would be found practicable to set aside not less than one-tenth to one-eighth of the present school time in grades 1 to 6 for handwork; that is, from two to three hours per week, divided up into from three to five periods, according to program conditions.

In grades 7 and 8 (and 9 if the junior high-school plan be adopted) the manual arts should receive not less than one-fifth to one-fourth of the present school time, or five to seven hours weekly. The program should be flexible enough to provide an even larger proportion of time for this purpose, up to one-third or one-half, for groups of selected pupils under special conditions on an elective basis.

4. *Reorganization.*—As already suggested, a place for elementary handwork should be found by a reorganization of the course of study and modified methods of instruction and not by the mere mechanical process of displacing something old in order to add something new. It is sufficient to indicate those features of reorganization and method which would affect the handwork:

(*a*) To the extent that handwork is used to illustrate and reinforce the instruction in other subjects (as language, arithmetic, geography, history), it becomes a method of teaching these subjects and does not require a special allotment of time of its own. By thus making the instruction in these subjects more vital and concrete, and hence more efficient, the same ground can be covered in less time.

(*b*) Courses of study in the public schools are to a certain extent an inheritance from a period in which the determining factor in the organization of the curriculum was the analysis of the subject matter that it was deemed important for the individual to learn. Current scientific studies of education are animated by the disposition to examine the processes of development going on in the child, the essential factors of adjustment to environment, and the necessary preparation for complete functioning as an adult individual, a human being, a citizen in a democracy, capable of maintaining himself and those dependent on him. The course of study is being examined with the view to determining its fitness to contribute to these ends rather than the completeness with which it covers the various fundamental fields of knowledge. This analysis has already proceeded far enough to identify certain nonessential material in

RECOMMENDATIONS.

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also an observable tendency to segregate in special
pupils who are making more rapid progress through
than the normal rate of one grade per year; (2) those
slower and retarded; and (3) those who are below normal,
or mentally. Pupils of these types constitute special
and should have special treatment. The segregation of
therefore, makes for more effective and more economical
use of the time of all concerned.

Scope of work.—The object in view should be a well-organized
articulated scheme of handwork running through the entire sys-
incorporating the best features applicable to local conditions
that have been developed by progressive cities, with lines of work
sufficient variety and scope to meet the approval of modern edu-
cational thought, and adapted to the capacities and needs of chil-
dren at successive stages of growth.

The work should connect intimately and efficiently with the ac-
tivities of the kindergarten and the training of the home on the one
side and with the practical demands and actual conditions of the life
careers into which young people go when they leave school on the
other.

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[illegible]

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[illegible] of manual training [illegible] are familiar with [illegible] school shopwork.

6. *Aims and purposes.*—It should be expected that the [illegible] school system will assume a new point of view, and that manual training will be introduced not so much as a new subject [illegible] demands, but with the distinct purpose of increasing [illegible] the efficiency of the whole system.

The service rendered to children by the manual arts should not be limited to its contribution to general education, even in the elementary school, though this may properly be the primary motive. So long as children are permitted to abandon permanently their birthright of school privileges at the immature age of 14 or even 16 years, there can be no adequate defense of an educational policy that neglects to offer in the school some rational preparation for the life struggle which these children are allowed to enter.

Unquestionably, therefore, beginning at the latest with the seventh year of school, the prevocational aim for most children, and the several school subjects. The elimination of nonessential material makes for more effective instruction and for economy of time.

(*c*) More time for handwork may be had by a redistribution of subjects in the various years of the elementary school. For example, arithmetic: Handwork involves all the fundamental operations in arithmetic, and affords a most natural and concrete method of instruction in these operations; this fact, together with the serious questioning, on other grounds of the necessity of having formal instruction in arithmetic spread over so many years of the elementary school, suggests the possibility of accomplishing the desired results in arithmetic with much less expenditure of time for formal instruction.

(*d*) The introduction of handwork and other features of the modern school, such as physical exercises, games, dramatizations, serves to make school work more interesting and more enjoyable, so that, even if the aggregate time actually devoted to instruction is not materially increased, more can be accomplished with less fatigue and with greater satisfaction to both teachers and pupils.

(*e*) There is an observable tendency in the direction of a longer school year and a longer school day. By a proper distribution of work periods and recreational features it should be possible to accomplish the following ends: Afford more time for proposed new activities; eliminate largely, if not entirely, the necessity for home work for both teachers and pupils; make school work less burdensome than under the existing program.

(*f*) There is also an observable tendency to segregate in special classes (1) pupils who are making more rapid progress through the grades than the normal rate of one grade per year; (2) those who are slower and retarded; and (3) those who are below normal, physically or mentally. Pupils of these types constitute special problems and should have special treatment. The segregation of these pupils, therefore, makes for more effective and more economical use of the time of all concerned.

5. *Scope of work.*—The object in view should be a well-organized and articulated scheme of handwork running through the entire system, incorporating the best features applicable to local conditions that have been developed by progressive cities, with lines of work of sufficient variety and scope to meet the approval of modern educational thought, and adapted to the capacities and needs of children at successive stages of growth.

The work should connect intimately and efficiently with the activities of the kindergarten and the training of the home on the one side and with the practical demands and actual conditions of the life careers into which young people go when they leave school on the other.

The work in the first four years should be adapted as closely as possible to the requirements of the reorganized course of study, and should involve the manipulation of materials and processes in paper and cardboard, textiles, basketry, weaving, and drawing. Beginning with the fifth year the lines of work may well diverge with the varying interests of boys and girls, and for the boys should include opportunities for work in thin wood, and elementary processes in bookbinding, printing, clay, cement, plaster, and such other groups as further study of conditions may indicate.

In the seventh and eighth years the boys should carry still further the problems in printing and bookbinding, and to these should be added suitable work in copper, brass, iron, leather, cement and concrete, electricity, benchwork in wood, and mechanical drawing. The woodwork might well include some simple framing and carpentry. All the shopwork should be made as practical as possible. The corresponding work for girls is discussed elsewhere in this report.

More systematic and determined effort should be made to study and provide for the needs of special groups of children, such as those who are for any reason retarded in physical or intellectual development or in their progress through the grades.

With the increase in time available, it will be possible to devote sufficient attention to mechanical drawing in the elementary schools to enable all boys to make and read simple working drawings, and to provide for a few an introduction to the elements of architectural or machine drafting. All the mechanical drawing should be practical in character and in accordance with approved standards of draftsmanship. This work should be under the direction of the supervisor of manual training, and taught by shop teachers, or by teachers who are familiar with shop conditions and keep in close contact with the school shopwork.

6. *Aims and purposes.*—It should be expected that the entire school system will assume a new point of view, and that manual training will be introduced, not so much as a new subject with its claims and demands, but with the distinct purpose of contributing to the efficiency of the whole system.

The service rendered to children by the manual arts should not be limited to its contribution to general education, even in the elementary school, though this may properly be the primary motive. So long as children are permitted to abandon permanently their birthright of school privileges at the immature age of 14 or even 16 years, there can be no adequate defense of an educational policy that neglects to offer in the school some rational preparation for the life struggle which these children are allowed to enter.

Unquestionably, therefore, beginning at the latest with the seventh year of school, the prevocational aim for most children, and the vocational aim for some children, should have definite recognition in the public schools. While the influence of these aims should not be limited to the work in the manual arts, it is here that the most favorable conditions will be found for its expression and development.

By "prevocational aim" is understood the attempt to assist boys and girls to study their own capacities and the possibilities of their environment, to "find themselves," and to make an intelligent choice at the right time of a future career based upon some adequate understanding of these considerations instead of drifting helplessly into whatever chance and ignorance may offer.

The "vocational aim" will be served by any course of activity which may be carried on in the school or encouraged elsewhere under the supervision of the school that assists boys and girls to make some progress in preparation for an occupation that is definitely anticipated.

7. *Equipment.*—The equipment and arrangement of the shops for grades seven and eight (and nine, if the junior high-school plan be adopted) should be somewhat different from those now in use. The type of shop that has existed in the past developed under the influence of traditional school ideals of class units and rigid programs, and although there has been much more freedom and flexibility in the shop than in the usual classroom, there is need of still further flexibility.

The new type of shop is conceived as a laboratory in which real problems may be considered and solved by the pupils. Such problems may frequently involve other processes than those found in woodworking, and it is desirable to provide equipment in sufficient variety to prevent the work from being confined to too narrow lines. The transformation in shops and equipment should be brought about gradually to enable teachers to prepare themselves for the new conditions. Nothing is gained by adding tools or materials which teachers are not qualified to use advantageously and efficiently.

It is not necessary that all of the desired lines of work be carried on in any one shop, though a considerable variety of work may be thus provided. The object in view is to provide pupils with as wide a range as practicable of useful experiences, and this may be accomplished in various ways.

8. *Course of study.*—The suggestions made herein contemplate emphasis upon problems which require constructive thought on the part of the pupil, stimulate the development of ingenuity and initiative in dealing with new situations, insure the formation of correct habits of technic and craftsmanship, and occasionally demand cooperative effort in which the students work together in groups on a single project. Too often school training has tended to repress independence and resourcefulness in the child, and to discourage the

cooperative spirit, through the teacher's preliminary analysis of processes, and through refinement in details of directions for procedure. These faults in method have often resulted from overburdening the teacher with too many pupils, and from the utter insufficiency of the time allowed.

To provide problems to be solved by the pupils instead of by the teacher is much more difficult than to outline courses of models or exercises. Nevertheless, it is an ideal toward which public school work in the manual arts is tending, and as an ideal it has the advantage of representing a type of work that produces the maximum of interest and profit for both teacher and pupil.

At the same time, supervisor and instructor must not be permitted to lose sight of the value to both teacher and pupil of careful analysis of every individual problem, and of definite and orderly progression in the year's work. Too much enthusiasm for the freedom and fascination of the practical-problem method of work, unrestrained by insistence upon thoughtful analysis and systematic procedure, can not be expected to produce results of educational value commensurate with the amount of energy displayed. The best teachers will be found to depend much on the analysis of each problem into its successive steps, and a study of the history of manual training will show that the content value, or educational value, comes only after such analysis has been made, or in the process of making it. For this reason, successful teachers endeavor to have the work of analyzing the problem done by the pupil, so far as possible, though they recognize that in the earlier stages it must necessarily be done by the teacher.

The industrial course in the high school should be continued, and modified to permit students who do not expect to enter college to elect a larger proportion of shopwork. The shopwork courses offered, and methods of instruction, should be based on the opportunities open to boys and young men in local industrial plants.

The special vocational course should be continued, and facilities provided as rapidly as possible for offering an increased variety in shopwork. The student in this, as in other shop courses, should produce many articles of equipment and furnishings required by the schools.

The regular college preparatory curriculum of the high school should be modified by the introduction of more electives, thus taking advantage of the tendency on the part of colleges and universities toward a more liberal interpretation of entrance requirements. Among these electives should be included as wide a variety as possible of courses in shopwork and drawing, in as many grades of the curriculum as practicable, in view of the prior demands of the technical curricula.

9. *Library.*—Steps should be taken as early as practicable to provide, for the use of both teachers and pupils, a carefully selected library of the best current literature in the fields of the manual arts, vocational guidance, and vocational education. Some of the important items should be duplicated and supplied to all shops or classrooms where their use is appropriate. In addition, there should be a small collection in each school building and a more complete and comprehensive reference library at the high school. An initial appropriation of $300 and an annual appropriation of $50 for this purpose is suggested.

Chapter XIV.

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION.

For many years it has been evident that the public school offers more definite and more effective service to the boy or girl who can use this schooling as a stepping-stone to further training in college or university than it does to the one who must make the best of it as preparation for a life career without the higher education. The records show that many boys and girls of high-school age have dropped out of school. While the significance of the reasons for these withdrawals is still more or less in dispute, there is reason to believe that emphasis upon the aim of preparation for college has operated as a selective force, attracting and retaining pupils who can be held to this aim and tending to eliminate others.

With the development of the ideal of democracy in education, in the sense of equality of educational opportunity, there have come numerous attempts to adapt the school to the needs of all children. There has been a tendency at times to confuse the issue by assuming that the proposal to make education vocational—that is, to make it prepare definitely for some useful occupation—is without precedent and therefore dangerous. Theoretically, however, the primary aim of education is to prepare for life; our higher education has always had specific vocational value. This value is not discounted in any way by the fact that higher education has also cultural and general values.

One of the great educational problems of the day is to add vocational values to education of secondary grade, in order to bring them within the reach of the great mass of boys and girls instead of only the few who now go to college, without sacrificing the essential elements of cultural and general education.

The experience of a number of communities has suggested the possibility that one notable result of an adequate solution of this problem will be to hold in school many boys and girls who now drop out under one pretext or another, and thus to provide the schools with a new clientele. One method of approach to this problem, therefore, is a study of the boys and girls for whom it is proposed to make provision.

A STUDY OF PUPILS 13 TO 15 YEARS OF AGE.

A number of school surveys have called attention to the significance of a study of those pupils in a school system who are 13, 14, or 15 years of age. (1) Boys and girls both begin to drop out of school in large numbers soon after the age of 14 or 15 years is reached; so that at or before this period is the latest opportunity to study a cross-section of the school population before it is affected seriously by selective elimination. (2) The distribution of the pupils of these ages through the grades gives some indication of the success of the school system in classifying the pupils. (3) The study also indicates the extent of the schooling which many of these boys and girls are likely to receive before dropping out of the system. (4) Information concerning the nativity of the pupils, their parents, and older brothers and sisters has a bearing on the probable stability of the population. (5) Information concerning the occupations of fathers, brothers, and sisters, and the occupations which the pupils themselves expect to enter is significant in any study of a program for vocational education.

An inquiry along somewhat similar lines was conducted in the Elyria High School and is reported in the chapter on that school, consequently this study was confined to the elementary schools. It may be noted here that pupils of these ages were found in the high school as follows: Thirteen years of age, 7; 14 years of age, 59; 15 years of age, 118; total, 184.

Complete tables summarizing the facts found in this inquiry have been prepared and submitted in manuscript to the Elyria Board of Education. To save space, some of these tables are omitted from the following pages.

TABLE 1.—*Grade distribution of pupils, 13 to 15 years of age.*

Grade.	13 years.		14 years.		15 years.		Total.	
	Boys.	Girls.	Boys.	Girls.	Boys.	Girls.	Boys.	Girls.
Fifth	5	3	4	1	0	1	9	5
Sixth	14	12	10	6	1	1	25	19
Seventh	36	32	11	11	16	3	63	46
Eighth	20	35	32	28	22	18	74	81
Total	75	82	57	46	39	23	171	151

Assuming that a child enters school at 6 years of age, and progresses through one grade each year, the normal age at entrance into the eighth grade is 13 years. Of 171 boys 13 to 15 years of age, 97, or 56.8 per cent, have not yet reached the eighth grade; of 151 girls, 70, or 46.4 per cent, have not yet reached the eighth grade.

The birthplaces of these pupils and of their fathers are shown in Table 2. Only 6.5 per cent of the children are foreign born, and only

24.2 per cent of the fathers; 82.3 per cent of the children were born in Ohio, and 43.4 per cent were born in Elyria. In view of the small proportion of foreign-born children, it is evident that foreign birth is not an important cause of retardation among the 322 children studied. Its relation to elimination can be determined only by a corresponding study of children of these ages who have left school.

TABLE 2.—*Birthplaces of pupils and their fathers.*

Places of birth.	Number of persons born in places specified.			
	Boys.	Fathers of boys.	Girls.	Fathers of girls.
Elyria, Ohio	84	18	56	17
Elsewhere in Ohio	64	71	61	61
Elsewhere in United States	17	26	19	28
Total in United States	165	115	136	106
Austria-Hungary	1	5	2	3
Bulgaria	....	1	....	....
Canada	....	1	2	4
England	1	6	4	9
Europe (country not given)	....	....	....	2
Germany	....	19	....	8
Ireland	....	1	....	....
Italy	1	1	....	....
Orkney Islands	....	1	....	....
Russia	3	2	6	9
Scotland	....	....	1	2
Sweden	....	....	....	2
Wales	....	1	....	....
Total foreign	6	38	15	40
Birthplace not reported	....	18	....	5
Grand total	171	171	151	151

Pupils were asked for a statement of intentions regarding further schooling. Of the boys, 91.8 per cent definitely intend to complete the eighth grade before leaving school; 74.2 per cent intend to go to high school; while only 50.9 per cent have any plans for schooling beyond the high school. Of the girls, all but one intend to complete the eighth grade; 79.4 per cent intend to go to high school; while only 55.6 per cent have any plans for schooling beyond the high school.

Many boys and girls report intention to complete the eighth grade and to attend high school, which in all probability will not be realized. Many boys and girls have formulated no definite plans for the future, either as to school or occupation, chiefly because they have received no intelligent and timely assistance in this direction.

These facts suggest something of the complexity of the task of the school in designing courses of instruction that will be practically helpful to boys and girls who leave school at any specified point. They also emphasize the importance of stimulating young persons to consider more intelligently the uses that may be made of education, and to plan ahead.

TABLE 3.—*Employment of boys and girls, 13 to 15 years of age, outside of school hours.*

Employments.	Boys.	Girls.
Chores, odd jobs	10	
Clerks in stores, etc	13	6
Delivery, messenger service	9	
Helpers	[1] 5	
Housework		7
Miscellaneous	[2] 9	[3] 3
Selling and delivering papers	35	
Total number reporting employment	81	16
Reporting no employment	86	130
Not reporting	4	5
Total	171	151

[1] Includes helper to baggageman, 1; baker, 1; barber, 1; janitor, 2.

[2] Includes caddy, 1; farm worker, 1; laundryman, 1; player in band, 1; stable boy, 1; telephone operator, 1; muskrat trapper, 2; usher, 1.

[3] Includes candy maker, 1; caring for child, 2.

In reply to the question about plans for earning a living, nearly one-third of the boys (32.1 per cent) are undecided or fail to report a choice of occupation, while fewer than one-fourth of the girls (23.8 per cent) fall in this class.

Of the 116 boys who express a choice, 90, or 77.5 per cent, are almost equally divided between the manufacturing and mechanical industries (44) and professional pursuits (46). Of the 115 girls who express a choice, 93, or 80.8 per cent, prefer professional pursuits (55) or clerical occupations (38). The largest single group among the boys comprises 36 mechanics; among the girls, 19 teachers (or, including 16 music teachers, 35 in all).

Comparison of the occupations chosen by the boys and girls and the opportunities open in the community shows entire lack of relation between them. Of the 116 boys who express a choice, 37.9 per cent prefer the manufacturing and mechanical industries and 39.6 per cent the professions, whereas the proportions of these groups among males employed in Elyria are 64.2 per cent and 3.3 per cent, respectively. Similarly, of the 115 girls who express a choice, 47.8 per cent prefer professional pursuits and 2.6 per cent domestic and personal service, whereas the proportions of these groups among females employed in Elyria are 18.7 per cent and 18.9 per cent, respectively.

It is not to be assumed that all persons will necessarily find employment in the communities in which they grow up and receive their education; nevertheless many of them will inevitably be disappointed if their education does not include some study of the vocational opportunities within reasonable distance.

Of the 114 reasons for choice of occupation assigned by the boys, 78 per cent are included in four groups: A liking for the work, advice of relatives, earning a living, and the money in it; 84.5 per cent of the 110 reasons assigned by the girls fall in the same groups.

A study of the occupations chosen by these boys and girls and the reasons assigned for the choices leads to the conclusion that they were, for the most part, without adequate data upon which to base such choice. Only within very recent years has the public school begun to appreciate its responsibility in vocational guidance, and it is not yet common to find groups of boys and girls who are properly prepared to face the momentous problem of choosing a life work. If the school is really expected to offer an education that prepares for life, it is difficult to explain, much less to justify, a program that omits all study and discussion of the practical methods by which men and women earn their living.

A STUDY OF THE OLDER BROTHERS AND SISTERS.

Pupils who were 13 to 15 years of age were asked to give the names and addresses of older brothers and sisters who were "under 21 years of age and at work." To these older brothers and sisters a questionnaire was sent.

Information was obtained from 24 brothers and 19 sisters who filled and returned the blanks. The facts may be briefly summarized as follows:

Of the 43 brothers and sisters, 2 are 16 years old; 6 are 17; 13 are 18; 15 are 19; and 7 are 20.

Only 17 have had any schooling beyond the eighth grade, and only 5 have graduated from high school.

Only 5 brothers and 5 sisters report that they draw books from the public library.

Forty were born in the United States, and of these 18 were born in Ohio and 14 in Elyria.

Thirteen different occupations are represented; 8 are working in factories and 8 are clerks; no other occupation has more than 3 individuals.

Of the 43 individuals, 31 report an aggregate of 78 positions held since leaving school; 13 have held 3 or more positions each.

Of the 43 young persons, only 6 (1 male and 5 females) report that they have taken courses in evening school since leaving the public schools, and only 7 (4 males and 3 females) report enrollment in correspondence courses. Of the 13 courses reported (evening and correspondence), 8 were business courses.

The number of older brothers and sisters involved (43) is too small to form the basis of valid conclusions. The facts presented are of interest, however, as confirming, so far as they go, the findings of studies made elsewhere and indicate the gravity of the problems of vocational adjustment confronting boys and girls who leave the public schools without completing the high school and without definite preparation for some useful and congenial occupation.

Many boys and girls who leave school under these conditions have not established studious habits, nor have they the ability or the disposition to analyze the various factors of the situations into which they may be thrown and to think out the solution. They are frequently the ones who most need sympathetic and helpful direction in a study of themselves, their native capacities and interests, and the relation of these to vocational opportunity and demand.

STUDY OF OCCUPATIONS IN ELYRIA.

An analysis was made of the distribution of wage earners by occupation in Elyria and 10 other cities of the same population class as reported in the Elyria city directory and the United States census reports. The results may be summarized briefly, as follows:

More than half of the occupations reported in Elyria, 58 per cent, fall in the manufacturing and mechanical industries group. This is more than three times the proportion found in the next largest group, trade (commercial) pursuits, 16.7 per cent. This preponderance in manufactures and the industries is due to the males rather than the females, the largest group of the latter being found in clerical occupations—24.2 per cent.

Aside from laborers, mechanics, and factory operatives, the largest groups of occupations among the males are: Proprietors and managers of stores and other establishments, 442; presidents, superintendents, and other company and corporation officials, 282. Of the 38 remaining classifications only 5 have more than 90 individuals reported in each.

Among the females the largest groups are: Accountants, bookkeepers, cashiers, clerks, stenographers, 268; domestic and personal service, unclassified, 197; teachers, 114; retail store employees, 114. Of the remaining 18 classifications only 3 have more than 36 individuals reported in each.

Compared with other cities of somewhat larger total population, Elyria offers boys and men much greater opportunity, proportionately, in the manufacturing and mechanical industries, somewhat greater opportunity in trade (commercial) pursuits, but rather meager opportunities in the other principal groups of occupations.

Elyria offers girls and women substantially equal vocational opportunities in five different groups of occupations: Clerical, manufacturing and industrial, domestic and personal, professional, trade (commercial).

The number of employed females is proportionately much less than the number of employed males in Elyria as compared with other cities. The number of females is 34.8 per cent of the number of males in the 44 cities; 29 per cent in the 10 cities; but only 16.9 per cent in Elyria. Vocational opportunities for girls and women in Elyria are not so numerous as those open to boys and men, though they are much more diversified.

The particular occupation in which the largest numbers of opportunities have been found are as follows: Males—Factory operatives, laborers, mechanics, steam and electric railway employees, officers and proprietors of corporations and businesses, retail store employees. Females—Retail store employees, teachers, domestic and personal service (cooks, domestics, housekeepers, maids, seamstresses, laundresses, cateresses), clerical occupations (accountants, bookkeepers, cashiers, clerks, stenographers).

MANUFACTURES IN ELYRIA.

The Bureau of the Census reports that the amount of capital invested in manufacturing establishments in Elyria was $7,324,000 in 1909 and $9,486,000 in 1914, an increase of 29.5 per cent during five years. During the same period the amount paid for salaries increased 36.2 per cent; primary horsepower utilized, 19.4 per cent; amount paid for wages, 11.8 per cent; cost of materials consumed, 11.6 per cent; value of products, 9 per cent; value added by manufacture (value of products less cost of materials), 5.8 per cent.

Elyria is not a single-industry center, since no one industry is so prominent as to dominate the field. On the contrary, for a community of its size the variety of factories and of manufactured products is unusual. Some of the more important of these products may be enumerated, as follows: Automatic machinery; automobile engines, parts, and accessories; belting; bicycle and motorcycle saddles; canned fruits and vegetables; concrete blocks; drugs and chemicals; dyes; enameled ware; flour and feed; furnaces and stoves; golf balls; ice; iron and steel (castings, forgings, plates, tubing, tools, etc.); lace machine parts; stockings; talking machines.

Many factories and other places of employment were visited and employers and workers consulted as to the most immediate educational needs. As the result of these conferences the following suggestions were formulated:

1. Very few workers under 18 years of age were found. The employers consulted were almost unanimous in their preference for beginners at least 18 years old, except for definitely juvenile occupations.

2. While there are many occupations for which the public schools as now conducted offer practically nothing in the way of definite

preparation, employers were of the opinion that it is desirable to have boys and girls remain in school at least until graduation from high school.

3. The opinion was frequently expressed, however, that the schools can do much more than they are now doing to insure the future vocational success of young people.

4. It was suggested that there should be more thorough grounding in the so-called fundamentals of education on the part of young people as they come from the public schools. Especially is it felt that these subjects might be taught in such a way as to function more effectively in business and industrial life.

5. A knowledge of chemistry and mathematics would be of definite value to many employees in chemical works, laundries, dry-cleaning establishments, and others.

6. By the use of such devices as stock tickets, time and cost records, and job routes the work in school shops can be made more practical, and boys can thus be sent into the factories with better understanding of industrial shop methods and requirements.

7. It is believed that real need exists for practical evening courses for skilled workers in a number of trades, including carpenters, machinists, plumbers, pipe fitters, electricians, as well as for employees of gas and electric light plants, electric railway companies, retail stores, and others.

8. A part-time arrangement of classes for younger employees in retail stores seems practicable. During the several busy periods that occur annually, groups of extra workers may be employed for two or three weeks at a time, the remainder of the year being spent in school.

9. In Elyria factories, as elsewhere, many occupations do not furnish material for definite courses of instruction, and make no requirements upon the workers for which specific instruction can be given outside of the factory. In many establishments the skilled workers do not exceed 10 per cent of the total.

10. There appears to be great variety of experience in respect to labor turnover. Some employers report a very stable working force, and others just the reverse. In one factory more than 50 per cent of the workers had been employed two months or less.

PRESENT PROVISION FOR VOCATIONAL EDUCATION.

Aside from certain courses offered by the Young Men's Christian Association which have some vocational value, the opportunities for vocational education at present open to young people in Elyria may be briefly summarized as follows:

1. The special vocational course in the public schools, six years in length, beginning with the seventh grade.

2. The technical courses in the public high school, which have vocational value for certain pupils.

3. The commercial course in the public high school. In this course, which is four years in length, the student spends from one-half to three-fourths of the time on commercial subjects. The course is administered by two teachers, one of whom teaches stenography, typewriting, bookkeeping, commercial law, and business forms, and the other teaches commercial geography and commercial arithmetic.

The course does not include banking nor instruction or practice in the use of such office appliances as the mimeograph, multigraph, and computing machines. For several years past the graduates of the commercial course have averaged about 15 annually, one-fourth of the total number graduating. It is said that the work of the instructors is so heavy that no attempt can be made to follow up closely the work of graduates or to keep in touch with specific demands of the positions in which graduates are likely to go.

4. The normal training course in the public high school.

5. The Elyria Business College, a private institution which was established in 1896 and incorporated in 1899. This is a coeducational school of secondary grade (for white pupils only), offering two principal courses—bookkeeping and stenography. Two years of high-school work are required for entrance, and pupils must be not less than 16 years of age. The courses are planned to occupy 6 months, and most students actually complete them in from 6 to 6½ months. The school is open 12 months in the year for day classes and 10 months for evening classes.

The classes offered include the following subjects: Bookkeeping, special penmanship, special class for teachers of commercial branches, stenography, stenotypy, commercial law, commercial arithmetic, business correspondence, adding machine, multigraph, filing devices, bank work. In addition, a number of special courses in the common branches are offered to meet the demand of pupils from the public schools who wish to "make up" work. Four teachers are employed for the work of instruction.

The quality of work observed in the Elyria Business College was very good. There was more evidence here than in the public high school of an effort to connect the instruction definitely with the ascertained demands of business positions to be filled, and to follow up graduates in order to judge of the efficiency of the instruction.

PROGRAM FOR VOCATIONAL EDUCATION.

The steps to be followed in the further development of a program for vocational education may be analyzed as follows: (*a*) Vocational guidance, (*b*) prevocational education, (*c*) vocational schools or classes.

VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE.

One of the significant phases of recent progress in education is in the development of a type of school or department designed to assist boys and girls approximately from 12 to 16 years old to a better understanding of (1) their own abilities, (2) of the opportunities afforded to do the world's work, and (3) of the best possible use to be made of such abilities and such opportunities. When work with this object in view has been undertaken in a more or less formal way as a classroom study and through individual conferences between teacher and pupil, with or without visits to industrial and commercial establishments and individual studies and researches, it has been referred to as "vocational guidance."

The importance of this work, when conducted by properly prepared teachers and directors, and the practical value of the results achieved, have been demonstrated in numerous localities.

It is recommended that work having these objects in view be begun in the Elyria schools on a small scale, and that it be encouraged and extended as rapidly as suitable persons can be found or prepared to direct it. The responsibility for the work in vocational guidance should lodge primarily with the school officer who has charge of the work in manual arts and vocational subjects, to the end that there may be unity of aim and coordination of effort in these closely related fields.

PREVOCATIONAL EDUCATION.

When the studies in vocations are developed to the extent that special equipment is provided, so that the student may participate in practical shop and laboratory activities on real projects selected from a number of typical or fundamental vocations, with sufficient time assigned to the practical work, it is believed that the pupil may be able to form for himself an intelligent relative estimate of his fitness for the various types of vocation in which he thus engages, as the basis for the choice of a life career. To such special school or class has been given the title of "prevocational school" or "prevocational class." In the Elyria schools the earlier years of the six-year special vocational course, noted above, are intended to meet this need.

The prefix "pre-" implies a special kind of training that precedes vocational training, and hence is not itself vocational. It is designed for the young person who has not yet made a choice of vocation, or a choice among several opportunities for vocational education that are offered, and who is presumed to receive therefrom definite assistance in the making of such choices.

The latter part of the term, "-vocational," implies a considerable variety of activities and a broad outlook into possible future careers. In order to be entitled properly to the use of the term, a program for prevocational education should embrace a variety of activities sufficient to include some representation of each of the important groups of possible vocations, from among which it is assumed that a choice is to be made. There should be included something corresponding to the introductory phases of each of the main subdivisions of vocational education (professional, agricultural, commercial, industrial, and home making), the opportunity to enter upon a definite vocational course in some one of which presumably will be open as soon as a choice can be made.

The importance of practical work in this field is realized by reflecting upon the increase in the efficiency of the vocational school that would follow from limiting its efforts to those who come to it after having made rational and fairly definite choices of future careers, based upon such trying out as might be afforded in a broadly conceived prevocational school. It is the common experience of the vocational school—whether the trade school, the business college, the normal school, or the divinity school—to find that many candidates apply for admission whose determination to prepare for and to pursue a given vocation is based upon chance considerations, rather than upon an ascertained or demonstrated fitness for success in the chosen calling.

In the aggregate, a vast amount of time and energy, and vast sums of money, have been expended in attempts to prepare persons for occupations in which they can not be successful or contented. A considerable portion of this expenditure might be saved to the individual, to the school, and to society by a well-organized plan for assisting young persons to "find themselves."

The studies reported in the preceding pages suggest that the following lines of prevocational work should be introduced: For boys—shopwork in metal, wood, and leather; electricity; salesmanship; and business organization and methods; for girls—commercial subjects, salesmanship, and business methods; cooking, sewing, and home making. It is recommended that experiments be undertaken, especially in grades 7 and 8, to determine what additional types of prevocational classes will be most helpful to Elyria boys and girls.

Plan for prevocational classes.—The special vocational course beginning with the seventh school year, now in operation in the Elyria schools, affords an excellent basis on which to build a prevocational school organization. If a course of training is to be formulated, however, which will help boys and girls to find themselves and enable them to make an intelligent choice of their work for the future, it must be a varied one. What is needed is carefully organized training in practical activities, which will include experiences from all of the fields of employment mentioned above, and from such other fields as further study may determine. The plan should include a series of jobs, projects, or enterprises, which, in their accomplishment, will give to the pupils an appreciative understanding of the fundamental processes and requirements in these typical groups of occupations.

Essential features.—Experience in other school systems has shown that certain conditions are essential to success in this undertaking:

1. At least one-half of the time in school should be devoted to the various lines of practical activity. Sufficient time must be allowed to accomplish definite results in each occupational field. A six-hour school day, with two sessions of three hours each, has found favor in a number of places.

2. One-half the time should be given to related work in language, mathematics, elementary science, industrial geography, industrial history, and, in general, to preparation for intelligent understanding of and active participation in civic and social responsibilities.

3. The work should be offered, in the beginning, at least, on an elective basis, but all boys and girls who are likely to profit by the instruction should be encouraged to take it. This department should be maintained on the same basis of dignified and serious endeavor as any other, and should not be considered as a special provision for incorrigibles or for pupils physically or mentally backward.

4. As already indicated, there must be variety in the practical activities undertaken, in order to give insight into a number of typical vocational fields.

5. Teachers should be chosen who have had sufficient experience in the occupations represented in the course of study to relate the instruction to actual conditions in the industrial and commercial world. The closest relationship should be maintained also between the shopwork and the related work. The success of prevocational work is dependent in large degree upon the teacher's power to hold and interest the pupils and upon his qualities of adaptability, originality, initiative, and keen interest in the successful handling of the problem.

6. There should be not less than one year, and preferably two years (the seventh and eighth), during which the pupil engages in several typical lines of shopwork or laboratory work, successively, followed by a period of one year or more in which he may specialize in a chosen line.

7. The pupils should be grouped in sections of not to exceed 15 to 18 each, in order to permit a degree of individual instruction.

Course of study.—The outline of the course of study suggested for the seventh and eighth years is as follows:

SEVENTH YEAR.

Boys: Woodworking, half year, three hours per day. Metal work, half year, three hours per day.

Girls: Home economics, entire year, three hours per day.

Boys and girls: Related subjects, entire year, three hours per day.

EIGHTH YEAR.

Boys: Leather work, one-fourth year, three hours per day. Electrical construction, one-fourth year, three hours per day. Commercial subjects, half year, three hours per day.

Girls: Commercial subjects, half year, three hours per day. Home economics, half year, three hours per day.

Boys and girls: Related subjects, entire year, three hours per day.

PRACTICAL WORK.

Woodworking.—To include (1) bench work and cabinetmaking, construction and repair of furniture and equipment for the schools; (2) carpentry, problems in laying out and erecting small frame structures, such as garage, poultry house, and repair work; (3) study of tools, machines, materials, methods of production.

Metal work.—To include (1) bench work in cold metals; (2) forging, simple toolmaking; (3) foundry practice; (4) pipe cutting, threading, and fitting; applied so far as possible to practical problems in construction and repairs which may develop in connection with the equipment of the shops.

Leather work.—To include (1) study of the processes of producing commercial leather from the hide—cleaning, curing, tanning, splitting, dyeing, finishing, etc.; (2) construction and repair of articles made of leather in a few typical lines such as belts and purses, harness, etc.

Electrical construction.—To include elementary work in battery construction, magnetism, induction, wiring, electrical measurements, and testing; experiments with batteries, induction coils, and the wiring of bell, telegraph, and telephone circuits.

Commercial subjects.—To include a variety of units sufficient to give a broad insight into the important subdivisions of commercial employment, without attempting to develop specialized technic in any line to the point of encouraging premature entrance upon occupation. The units should include typewriting, stenography, bookkeeping, accounting, filing systems, office devices and practice, commercial forms, elementary commercial law, salesmanship, business methods, and organization.

Drawing.—Elementary in character, practical, and related directly to the projects undertaken by the pupils in the various shop and laboratory courses.

Home economics.—To include elementary work in a variety of units designed to give a broad insight into the problems of homemaking—foods and cookery, textiles and clothing, household furnishings, marketing, household accounts, house planning and decoration, household sanitation, laundering, home nursing, care of children, and general housewifery.

RELATED SUBJECTS.

English.—Language work based on reading, much of the reading to bear upon occupations, industry, and business. Composition, dealing with the practical activities carried on in the school, business correspondence, business forms, spelling, penmanship.

Mathematics.—To be of a very practical nature, including fundamental processes. short methods used in business, business and industrial mathematics, with emphasis on immediate application to the practical activities of the school.

History and geography.—Closely interrelated, and dealing primarily with the industrial and commercial development of the city, State, and country.

Civic and social duties.—Relation of the individual to the country, State, and community; relation of the worker to his work, to his employer, and to his fellow workmen; duties and responsibilities, civic and social, with special reference to sanitation, personal hygiene, etc.

Science.—To include elementary units of work dealing with the more important chemical, physical, and biological problems arising in connection with the practical activities of the school and everyday life. Each unit of project should have for its aim the study and mastery of some scientific principle having a practical application.

Suggested third year.—For pupils who can not be induced to follow some one of the four-year high-school curricula it is suggested that a third year of work be provided based on the two years of prevocational instruction outlined above. This class may take one or all of the following forms:

(1) *A day vocational class*, in which the pupil definitely specializes in some one line, chosen by himself in consultation with his advisors, in the light of his experiences during the first two years. From one-half to two-thirds of the time should be taken up with intensive work in the shop and drafting room, and the remainder with such related studies as will best aid him to prepare for the vocation in which he has chosen to specialize.

(2) *A cooperative class.* In this plan the pupils are paired, one pupil being in school while his mate is in the store or factory. Each individual thus attends school on alternate days, weeks, or fortnights, as the case may be, and works in store or factory the remainder of the time. The successful administration of this plan requires the careful and sympathetic cooperation of the school, employers, pupils, and parents. It has many other advantages besides that of prolonging the period of education for boys and girls who would otherwise drop out of school.

(3) *A part-time class*, to which boys and girls would come from their places of employment for one or two half-days' instruction per week. In this plan the school time may be devoted entirely to bookwork or divided between bookwork and shopwork, or otherwise adapted to the special needs of the group.

Relation to the regular school work.—The prevocational school is planned primarily for boys and girls of normal capacity and attainments who look forward to leaving school at a relatively early age in order to go to work and who desire the help of the school in reaching a decision as to what line of work they may enter with the greatest prospect of success. Instruction of the type contemplated will undoubtedly be of service even to boys and girls who subsequently go to college and university, but it should make its greatest appeal to those who will probably go no further than the high school.

The ground to be covered corresponds to the last two years of the regular elementary school course and requires the same amount of time for its completion. In general, completion of the regular sixth year's work should be required for entrance, but liberal exceptions should be made in favor of pupils 13 or 14 years of age who are manifestly able to profit by the advantages offered.

Provision should be made for admitting graduates of the two years' prevocational course to the technical and commercial courses of the high school upon the recommendation of the principal of the prevocational school and the superintendent of schools. If at any time in the future the public school system of Elyria should be reorganized so as to provide for an intermediate or junior high school, covering the seventh, eighth, and ninth years, the plan here proposed for a prevocational school is well adapted to fit in with such reorganization.

VOCATIONAL CLASSES.

A sufficient number of employers and workers were interviewed to demonstrate the existence of a demand for more education, both general and specific, although no employer was found who was providing for or encouraging the education of his employees in any effective way. Both employers and workers welcomed the suggestion that the public school can and will adapt itself to the needs of adult workers.

The public-school system has organized a few evening classes for employed workers, and the same is true of the Elyria Business College and the Young Men's Christian Association. More determined effort, better correlation of plans, and more adequate facilities are necessary in order to meet the needs of the situation.

It is recommended that the technical courses in the high school and the special vocational course beginning with the seventh year be strengthened and extended. The former should not make preparation for the engineering college their chief aim, but should adjust themselves more definitely to the demands of industry and business and address themselves to the twofold task of assisting young people to determine the directions in which they are most likely to succeed, and of preparing them for high-grade positions in industrial and commercial life. The latter should aim to retain its pupils as long as possible, but should recognize the fact that many boys and girls will not remain to complete a six years' course, and should consider the desirability of making numerous definite connections with the vocations. Suggestions concerning modification of the work of the first two years of this course are offered in the discussion of the prevocational school in a preceding section.

While aiming at practical utility and helpfulness to young people, all vocational courses should give due attention to the requirements of preparation for intelligent citizenship and discharge of individual and social obligations.

It is recommended that the commercial course in the high school be modified somewhat so as to connect more directly with available places of employment. The following modifications are suggested especially: (1) Establishment of closer relations with employers, involving records of graduates of the commercial course, definite knowledge of the conditions under which they are working, and the progress they are making; (2) introduction of instruction in the use of mimeograph, multigraph, computing machine, filing devices, and other modern office appliances.

The possibility of having the routine business of the board of education and of the offices of the superintendent of schools and the principal of the high school transacted by the pupils of the commercial department, under proper direction, should be considered as a means of providing practical experience for pupils in the advanced classes.

EVENING CLASSES.

The largest service that can be rendered at present in vocational education is through the organization of evening classes. Without doubt all the available equipment of the high school, including shops, drafting rooms, physical and chemical laboratories, would be used to capacity if an aggressive effort were made to supply in evening courses the unmet needs of mature wage earners in Elyria.

It is recommended that the initial steps be taken in the development of practical courses from among those named below. Experience with these courses will be the best guide in determining what other courses to add later. (1) Chemistry and mathematics for employees of chemical works, laundries, dry-cleaning establishments, rubber factory, and others. (2) Blue-print reading, drafting, and mathematics for carpenters, machinists, plumbers, pipe fitters, electricians. (3) Practical shop or laboratory classes for the foregoing and for employees of garages, gas and electric light plants, and electric railways. (4) Salesmanship and business methods for employees in retail stores. (5) Cooking, sewing, and home-making courses, some of which may be given during the day, for those who are actually engaged in home making.

By conferences with individuals and by bringing together groups of prospective students the actual needs should be ascertained as definitely as possible before details of courses of instruction are determined upon.

Instructors should be sought among the public-school teaching staff wherever individuals have had the necessary commercial or industrial experience, and among employers and skilled employees in the occupations concerned.

It is recommended that, in addition to longer courses, a number of courses be organized, 10 or 12 weeks in length, two evenings per week. Experience seems to show that short intensive courses, aiming at a definite goal not too far in the distance, frequently make an appeal and meet a need better than longer courses.

It is recommended that small advisory committees representative of employers and employees in the various occupations be organized to assist in the development of plans and courses of study, in securing competent instructors, and in guiding the progress of the work.

PART-TIME CLASSES.

In many lines of business extra help is required for short periods at certain seasons of the year. It should be possible to adjust the courses of study in the commercial and industrial departments so that students could be free to accept employment for these periods without loss of school work, and thus to supplement the instruction by practical experience in the occupations.

The experience of many communities in the development of day continuation schools and classes, operating under systems of State aid and also without such stimulus, should be drawn upon for further suggestions. Elyria is not ready for an all-day trade school, and probably will not be for some years to come.

SUMMARY OF RECOMMENDATIONS.

1. Instruction in the fundamentals of education should be related more definitely to the development of ability to meet real life situations.
2. Instructors in the manual-training shops should keep in mind the desirability of giving boys more adequate understanding of industrial shop methods and requirements.
3. Systematic work in vocational guidance should be inaugurated, and developed as rapidly as circumstances permit.
4. Responsibility for the work in vocational guidance should lodge primarily with the same school officer who has charge of the work in manual arts and vocational subjects.
5. The special vocational course beginning with the seventh year should be strengthened and extended in scope. The first two years of this course should be organized as a prevocational school, as outlined in this chapter. This course should make numerous definite connections with the vocations.

6. The technical courses in the high school should also be strengthened and extended. The chief purpose of these courses should be the twofold aim of assisting young people to determine the directions in which they are mose likely to succeed and of preparing them for high-grade positions in industry and commerce.

7. All vocational courses should give due attention to the requirements of preparation for intelligent citizenship and discharge of individual and social obligations.

8. The commercial course in the high school should be modified so as to connect more directly with available places of employment.

9. The routine business of the board of education and of the offices of the superintendent of schools and the principal of the high school should be transacted by the pupils of the commercial department.

10. The initial steps should be taken in developing evening classes for employees, in which the subjects of instruction shall be the following: (1) Chemistry and mathematics; (2) blue-print reading and drafting; (3) practical shop or laboratory courses; (4) salesmanship and business methods; (5) cooking, sewing, and home making. By conferences with individuals the actual needs should first be ascertained as definitely as possible.

11. Instructors should be sought among the public-school teaching staff and among employers and skilled employees in the occupations concerned.

12. A number of courses 10 or 12 weeks in length, two evenings per week, should be organized.

13. Advisory committees representative of employers and employees should be organized.

14. Part-time day classes should be organized for younger employees in retail stores and in other employment.

15. The experience of other communities in the development of day continuation schools and classes should be drawn upon for suggestions.

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OFICINA DE EDUCACIÓN

BOLETÍN, 1918, N.º 16

FACILIDADES OFRECIDAS A LOS ESTUDIANTES EXTRANJEROS EN LOS COLEGIOS Y UNIVERSIDADES DE LOS ESTADOS UNIDOS DE LA AMÉRICA DEL NORTE

POR
SAMUEL PAUL CAPEN
Especialista en Educación Superior, Oficina de Educación

TRADUCIDO BAJO LA DIRECCIÓN DE LA DIVISIÓN INTER-AMERICANA DE LA ASOCIACIÓN AMERICANA PARA LA CONCILIACIÓN INTERNACIONAL
POR
CARMEN TORRES CALDERÓN DE PINILLOS

WÁSHINGTON
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PRESENTACIÓN.

DEPARTAMENTO DEL INTERIOR,
OFICINA DE EDUCACIÓN,
Washington, 22 de mayo de 1918.

SEÑOR: En julio de 1915 presenté a la Oficina de Educación un manuscrito del doctor Samuel Paul Capen, especialista de educación en la Oficina, titulado *Facilidades ofrecidas a los estudiantes extranjeros en los colegios y universidades de los Estados Unidos,* para que fuera publicado como boletín de esta institución. Muchos ejemplares de este documento se han distribuído en el exterior. La "Pan American Union" ha hecho traducir al español y al portugués extractos de esta publicación. En el Oriente ha habido también alguna circulación de dicho documento. Parece que en las repúblicas hispanoamericanas hay interés especial por los informes que contiene este boletín acerca de la educación superior en los Estados Unidos. Con el objeto de ponerlos al alcance de los futuros estudiantes de aquellos países, el doctor Péter H. Goldsmith, Director de la División Interamericana de la Asociación Americana para la Conciliación Internacional, ha dispuesto la traducción española adjunta de este boletín. Recomiendo que esta versión sea publicada como boletín de la Oficina de Educación.

Lo cual tengo el honor de someter respetuosamente a la consideración de ese despacho.

P. P. CLAXTON,
Comisionado.

AL SEÑOR SECRETARIO DEL INTERIOR.

FACILIDADES OFRECIDAS A LOS ESTUDIANTES EXTRANJEROS EN LOS COLEGIOS Y UNIVERSIDADES DE LOS ESTADOS UNIDOS DE NORTE AMÉRICA.

SECCIÓN PRIMERA.

CAPÍTULO I.

ORGANIZACIÓN DE LA EDUCACIÓN EN LOS ESTADOS UNIDOS.

SISTEMA PARTICULAR DE LOS DIVERSOS ESTADOS.

Los Estados Unidos componen una federación de cuarenta y ocho estados autónomos que ejercen con entera independencia todos los poderes que la Constitución no confiere especialmente al Congreso Federal o que no se derivan implícitamente del texto de la ley. Como la Constitución no establece que sea el Gobierno Federal quien deba regular la educación, no existe verdaderamente un sistema nacional; de forma que los Estados Unidos contienen dentro de su área cuarenta y nueve [1] diversos sistemas de instrucción.

Si bien estos sistemas particulares no son absolutamente semejantes, poseen, sin embargo, ciertos factores comunes. Por ejemplo, todos los estados tienen una ley que provee una contribución para la instrucción elemental.[2] La duración ordinaria del curso elemental en las escuelas públicas es de ocho años. Los niños entran generalmente a la edad de seis o siete años y terminan a los catorce o quince. En todos los estados, con excepción de tres, la asistencia a la escuela durante este período o parte de él, es obligatoria.[3] Las escuelas públicas de segundo grado, llamadas *high schools* (liceos), que ofrecen cursos cuya duración ordinaria es de cuatro años, se sostienen igualmente en todos los estados. El curso de high-school, basado en el de la escuela elemental, está abierto a los graduados en estas escuelas o en cualquiera otra de preparación equivalente.[4]

La high-school llena tres requisitos importantes. Ofrece a la gran masa de estudiantes que la frecuenta, cuatro años de cultura y de

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[1] Incluyendo el distrito de Columbia que es el asiento del Gobierno Federal.

[2] La contribución para el sostenimiento y administración de las escuelas se cede ordinariamente a las comunidades locales, condados, ciudades o distritos; pero muchas veces se completan estos fondos con dinero de la hacienda pública. Véase la Sección III, página 95 para el programa y descripción de la instrucción elemental.

[3] La edad de asistencia obligatoria a las escuelas elementales es generalmente de 7 u 8 años hasta 14 ó 15. Sólo algunos estados exigen asistencia hasta los 16 años.

[4] Para el programa especial de las high-schools, véase la Sección III, páginas 96–98.

FACILIDADES OFRECIDAS A LOS ESTUDIANTES EXTRANJEROS EN LOS COLEGIOS Y UNIVERSIDADES DE LOS ESTADOS UNIDOS DE NORTE AMÉRICA.

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La high-school llena tres requisitos importantes. Ofrece a la gran masa de estudiantes que la frecuenta, cuatro años de cultura y de estudio informativo destinado a preparar su inteligencia y sus energías para la vida ciudadana de las democracias; prepara igualmente a los jóvenes para diversas instituciones superiores; y por último algunos centros de esta clase se han preocupado recientemente de enseñar a sus alumnos la manera de ganar dinero en el comercio y las industrias. Puede decirse que la high-school tiende cada día más a adaptarse a las necesidades de la comunidad, introduciendo estudios de naturaleza práctica y vocacional, es decir, acorde con las inclinaciones del individuo, y ofreciendo a los estudiantes cada vez mayor amplitud en la elección de las clases que deseen seguir.

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[3] [illegible] asistencia obligato[illegible] [illegible]las elementales es generalmente de 7 u 8 años hasta [illegible] [illegible] años.

[4] Véase la Sección III, páginas 96–98.

Muchos estados sostienen escuelas normales de pedagogía, o universidades de mayor o menor importancia, si no ambas instituciones. Las escuelas normales y ciertas secciones de las universidades de los estados concuerdan con las high-schools públicas en varios respectos que se especificarán después.

Además de las instituciones públicas, diversos grupos e individuos particulares han fundado escuelas elementales, high-schools, academias,[1] escuelas normales y colegios. El mayor número de escuelas particulares pertenece a la religión católica romana. La lista total de escuelas católicas parroquiales en 1914 alcanzaba a 1,429,859. Varias sectas religiosas tienen también institutos de educación bajo los auspicios de sus diferentes denominaciones. Tanto las escuelas particulares netamente religiosas como las que se encuentran bajo la influencia de determinada secta, asumen generalmente el sistema de educación de las escuelas públicas del mismo grado. Estas instituciones privadas gozan de completa libertad para su desenvolvimiento dentro de las leyes del país.

El observador extranjero, que nota principalmente lo heterogéneo de sistema nacional, se siente inclinado a juzgar que una desastrosa confusión de métodos y de organización caracteriza a la educación norteamericana. Pero la diferencia es más superficial que fundamental. El mismo tipo general de instituciones se encuentra en todas partes, rijanse o no oficialmente por el sistema de su respectivo estado. Su programa es e mismo en esencia. Existe, sin duda, alguna disparidad en el sistema de enseñanza, especialmente en los centros superiores de instrucción, pero no es tan marcada que asuma grandes proyecciones como se cree en general.

MÉTODOS DIVERSOS.

La razón principal para la diversidad de métodos en los centros de instrucción superior ha quedado ya demostrada suficientemente; pero haremos, sin embargo, un ligero resumen de su influencia sobre el plan general de la educación norteamericana. Los diversos sistemas de educación se desarrollaron independientemente uno de otro en cada estado. Tomando en consideración las resoluciones de instrucción dictadas por algunos gobiernos coloniales antes de la fundación de los Estados Unidos, encontraremos que el establecimiento de estos cuarenta y nueve sistemas diferentes abraza un período de dos centurias y media aproximadamente. En el transcurso de este tiempo ha variado la filosofía social de la nación, variando por consiguiente la concepción general del país respecto a la subvención y supervigilancia escolares del estado. Según teoría muy extendida[1] los diversos grados de instrucción, desde el *kindergarten* hasta las universidades, deben ser costeados y dirigidos por el estado o por el gobierno local. En los estados relativamente nuevos del oeste y del oeste central se realiza esta condición. Las instituciones de segundo grado y superiores, que no se encuentran bajo la vigilancia oficial, son raras o no existen. El sistema de educación en los estados más antiguos se había definido por otra parte, antes de la aceptación general de dicha teoría. La responsabilidad de la educación elemental y la secundaria hasta cierto grado, se dejaba pesar naturalmente sobre el estado; pero la educación superior estaba a cargo de las instituciones particulares fundadas bajo diversos auspicios, religiosos especialmente, y que no estaban sujetas a la vigilancia oficial.

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[1] El calificativo "academia" se emplea generalmente para las escuelas de segunde grado.

Inevitables diferencias en el sistema de educación surgieron de esta diferencia en el sistema directivo. Además, algunos estados, especialmente los de origen más reciente y población más diseminada, lo mismo que aquéllos empobrecidos por la guerra civil de 1860-1865, tropezaron con graves dificultades para proveer a los gastos de equipo de sus universidades y a las severas exigencias de la escolástica superior. En este grupo de estados se retardó también la creación de universidades y colegios de alto rango por la deficiencia de las escuelas de primero y segundo grado que preparan a los alumnos para la educación superior.

Hay, sin embargo, muchas influencias en juego para nivelar estas desigualdades. Una de las principales es la acción de numerosas asociaciones, nacionales y particulares, formadas por el cuerpo docente de escuelas y universidades. Durante varios años estas asociaciones han tratado de definir los métodos de enseñanza escolar y profesional, y determinar los requisitos necesarios para obtener los grados. En ciertos estados, donde la educación está mejor organizada, se aceptan las ideas de estas asociaciones como de fuente autorizada y se ponen en acción tan pronto como es posible. Las secciones menos favorecidas tocante a educación tratan igualmente de conformarse con tales nidicaciones y están haciendo rápidos progresos bajo su dirección.

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[1] No concuerdan, ciertamente, con esta teoría los miembros de ciertas denominaciones religiosas que profesan el principio de que la educación debe estar siempre bajo los auspicios de la religión.

El Oficina de Educación de los Estados Unidos ha ejercido también gran influencia para perfeccionar el método de los diversos tipos de instituciones escolares, especialmente en el terreno de la educación rural y la educación superior.

No puede afirmarse aún que la educación norteamericana llegue alguna vez a completa uniformidad en sus métodos y su administración. La uniformidad es contraria al espíritu de esta nación. Los norteamericanos son un pueblo individualista. Su sistema de educación y sus instituciones reflejan especialmente esta cualidad. Mantienen su derecho de expandirse como mejor les agrada y adaptan su sistema escolar a las necesidades locales, libre de restricciones embarazosas. Su libertad es realmente el secreto de su fuerza. Puede decirse, sin embargo, sin temor de errar, que existe ahora una corriente nacional que encauza la opinión a adoptar métodos de admisión y graduación que coincidan en esencia con los que rigen en las instituciones análogas de naciones más avanzadas y que son los mismos actualmente en uso en las mejores instituciones de los Estados Unidos. Los estudiantes extranjeros encontrarán en estos centros de educación facilidades extraordinarias para la enseñanza superior académica y profesional. Este folleto muestra, en rápida reseña, las facilidades que ofrecen los Estados Unidos para los estudios universitarios, en relación con las condiciones existentes en los más importantes centros de educación.

EVOLUCIÓN DE LAS UNIVERSIDADES.

EL COLEGIO.

La explicación de la organización predominante en la educación superior en los Estados Unidos comienza naturalmente con la descripción del colegio norteamericano, institución sin paralelo en ningún otro país.

Históricamente el colegio es la más antigua de las instituciones de esta clase. El primero, Harvard College, fué fundado en 1636 por los primeros ingleses que se establecieron en Massachusetts, tomando como modelo los colegios de Cámbridge y de Óxford. Siguiendo el rumbo de aquellas instituciones, el Colegio Hárvard se destinó a la enseñanza de artes liberales, particularmente griego, latín, filosofía y matemáticas. Muchos de los primeros graduados se dedicaron al ministerio religioso. En efecto, uno de los objetos principales del Hárvard y otros colegios fundados durante la primera centuria de la vida colonial en los Estados Unidos era procurar cumplida educación a los jóvenes que se dedicaban a aquella profesión. Poco a poco cambiaron, sin embargo, el carácter y los fines del colegio. Los cursos elementales se abandonaron a las escuelas primarias, y se agregaron nuevas clases al programa. El colegio perdió su sello teológico sin llegar a convertirse en escuela para otras profesiones.

Daba siempre clases de artes liberales pero adaptándolas más y más a la introducción de las ciencias e inclinándose de preferencia hacia las que completaban el curso para el bachillerato de artes.

Tres cambios muy significativos con relación al plan de educación superior ocurrieron durante el siglo diecinueve. El primero fué la fundación de escuelas profesionales de teología, jurisprudencia y medicina. Aun cuando los estudiantes eran admitidos a estas escuelas, como lo son todavía, sin previa educación en los colegios, aumenta cada día la tendencia general que demanda grado previo o por lo menos un curso de colegio como requisito para el ingreso. El colegio se convierte así en una especie de escuela preparatoria para todos aquellos que deseen seguir cursos en las escuelas profesionales.

El segundo cambio a que nos referimos fué la creación de secciones de pura ciencia experimental en los colegios. A mediados del siglo diecinueve el grado de B. en C., otorgado por extensa labor científica, comenzó a ocupar una posición paralela al antiguo grado de B. en A.[1] Paulatinamente estas clases científicas se ramificaron con la ingeniería, llegando a establecerse así las escuelas o departamentos de ingeniería, parte integrante hoy de muchos colegios de artes liberales.

El tercero y más importante cambio de los estatutos de los colegios se marcó con el establecimiento de escuelas para graduados en conexión con ciertas instituciones, según el modelo de la facultad de filosofía de las universidades alemanas. Las escuelas para graduados se han desarrollado especialmente en los últimos cuarenta y cinco años. Realmente este movimiento recibió el primer impulso de consideración con la fundación de la Universidad Johns Hopkins, organizada en 1867 y abierta a la instrucción en 1876. (Véase la Sec. VI, p. 163.) Las escuelas para graduados ofrecen a los colegios de análoga organización cursos para el grado de M. en A. y Dr. en F., de igual manera que para el grado correspondiente en las ramificaciones técnicas, dando así facilidades para estudios más avanzados en artes y ciencias, y para investigaciones similares a las que procuran las universidades europeas más adelantadas.

Desde el establecimiento de los colegios hasta la fundación de escuelas para graduados el programa de estudios ha sufrido solamente ligeras reformas, con excepción de la creación de cursos separados para ciencias y matemáticas. Algunas nuevas clases se han agregado de vez en cuando y se ha introducido poco a poco la opción entre ciertos estudios, como por ejemplo entre un idioma antiguo y otro moderno o entre dos ciencias elementales. Sin embargo, el programa de estudios en los colegios ha sido siempre fijo y definido en general, girando al rededor del griego, latín y matemáticas.

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[1] Se conferían igualmente muchos otros grados como B. en F., B. en P., etc.; pero la tendencia actual se encamina a los antiguos grados de B. en A. y B. en C. de acuerdo con las bases del programa, ya sea éste humanitario o científico. (Véase la tabla de grados para las abreviaturas usadas, Sec. V, p. 129.)

Con el desenvolvimiento de las escuelas para graduados y la evolución de las ideas respecto al desarrollo social y de la educación, vino la introducción de nuevos ramos del saber. La Universidad Columbia, por ejemplo, ofrece a sus candidatos para el bachillerato instrucción en cuarenta y cinco grados diferentes[1] y estas facilidades se repiten en muchas otras instituciones.

El antiguo sistema de clases obligatorias para el bachillerato se ha abandonado, existiendo ahora la tendencia general de reducir a dos o tres ramos solamente la labor requerida y dejar gran libertad al estudiante con respecto a la selección del resto de su programa; o bien ofrecer varios grupos de estudios en correlación con un solo tema central, permitiendo a los alumnos elegir cualquiera de dichos grupos. Aun los colegios que no se han extendido hasta escuelas para graduados y que no otorgan grados superiores al bachillerato responden a esta organización.

LA UNIVERSIDAD GENUINA.

El colegio es el núcleo de donde han brotado todas las otras instituciones de educación superior. Antes del siglo diecinueve no existía la universidad en el sentido moderno de esta palabra. Con la creación de las escuelas profesionales de teología, jurisprudencia y medicina, la mayor parte de las cuales era extensión de los colegios ya establecidos, las instituciones norteamericanas comenzaron a acercarse a la organización universitaria. El nombre de "universidad" se usó entonces para designar una institución compuesta de un colegio y de una o más escuelas profesionales, cada una de ellas bajo la dirección de determinada facultad. La influencia alemana ha predominado en la educación superior norteamericana durante los últimos cincuenta años y el tipo de las universidades de los Estados Unidos se ha forjado deliberadamente sobre el modelo alemán. El establecimiento de las escuelas para graduados marcó el paso final de esta evolución, hallándose así representadas las cuatro facultades tradicionales de las universidades alemanas: teología, jurisprudencia, medicina y filosofía.

Pero la moderna universidad norteamericana es más compleja en su organización que su prototipo alemán, habiéndose agregado varias otras escuelas o departamentos.[2] Escuelas dentales y en diversos ramos de ingeniería, de agricultura, de medicina veterinaria, etc., se combinan ahora a menudo en una sola universidad.[3] La Universidad de California, por ejemplo, tiene catorce escuelas o departamentos; la Universidad de Chicago, catorce igualmente; la

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[1] Véase página 16.

[2] En algunas instituciones estos diversos departamentos son llamados colegios, como por ejemplo, colegio de medicina, colegio de educación, etc.

[3] Así, por ejemplo, el tipo de instituciones conocido como el Technische Hochschule en Alemania y la Escuela Politécnica en Francia, se consideran en los Estados Unidos solamente como una escuela o departamento de las universidades.

Universidad de Illinóis, doce; la Universidad de Míchigan, ocho. Tan pronto como se abre campo una nueva profesión, se agrega a las universidades una escuela especial para esta clase de enseñanza. De tal manera se han creado últimamente escuelas de comercio, de administración comercial, de ciencia doméstica, de cerámica y de periodismo en muchas de las universidades más importantes; y este proceso continuará indudablemente de acuerdo con la multiplicidad de nuevas profesiones.

El término "universidad," sin embargo, no tiene aún definida clasificación. Las leyes que rigen la incorporación de las instituciones superiores en los diversos estados difieren en gran manera. Algunos estados, por ejemplo, exigen que toda institución que solicita su patente se conforme en su plan con el tipo establecido para la clasificación que pretende; mientras que en otros es posible obtener la patente de universidad basada tan sólo en la virtud del prospecto y de las buenas intenciones. Antes de la evolución de la genuina universidad era frecuente que los colegios que ofrecían un solo curso de bachillerato fueran clasificados como universidades. El nombre precedió a a entidad. Muchos de aquellos colegios conservan todavía el nombre sin haber alcanzado el desarrollo requerido para universidades. De esta manera se establece una legítima confusión entre el colegio y la universidad en ciertas ciudades y en la mente de algunas personas que no aciertan a discernir entre ambas instituciones. Esta confusión se explicará más fácilmente si recordamos que casi todas las universidades de importancia sostienen colegios organizados. El estudiante que frecuenta el Colegio de Artes y Ciencias de la Universidad Cornell o el Colegio de Letras de la Universidad de California, es un miembro de la universidad y por convenio tácito puede llamarse "universitario," aun cuando sus estatutos de instrucción sean exactamente los mismos que los del alumno del Colegio Amherst o del Colegio Hámilton, instituciones que no poseen departamentos profesionales. Lo mismo pasa con el estudiante en colegios aislados semejantes a los arriba citados, que sólo puede llamarse "colegial."

En este folleto las referencias con respecto a las universidades se harán solamente en su sentido más estricto, es decir, para designar instituciones que sostengan escuelas profesionales y confieran grados superiores. De esta clase pueden encontrarse algunas veintenas en los Estados Unidos de Norte América.

Una ojeada comparativa a las mejores universidades norteamericanas mostrará la organización de escuelas y departamentos como se clasifica más adelante. Sin embargo, no todos los departamentos que se mencionan están representados en cada una de las grandes universidades. Este sumario intenta demostrar el plan general de la educación universitaria más bien que describir las condiciones especiales de determinada universidad; pero en la sección cuarta se encontrará razón detallada de la organización y requisitos de ciertas instituciones seleccionadas para ilustrar el perfecto desarrollo de la educación superior norteamericana.

CAPÍTULO II.

ORGANIZACIÓN DE LA UNIVERSIDAD GENUINA.

EL COLEGIO O ESCUELA DE ARTES Y CIENCIAS.

La base de toda universidad es el colegio, llámesele colegio de artes y ciencias, colegio de letras, departamento de artes y ciencias, departamento para alumnos no graduados, etc. Cualquiera que sea su nombre, su carácter y su programa son más o menos los mismos en todas partes. Ofrece a los graduados en las escuelas de segundo grado[1] un curso de cuatro años para el grado de bachiller de artes o de ciencias o cualquier otro bachillerato.[2] El programa de estudios está generalmente de acuerdo con uno o dos de los sistemas establecidos. Ciertas materias, como el inglés, algin otro o dos idiomas modernos, latín, historia, una ciencia cualquiera y matemáticas, se exigen a todos los estudiantes; o bien, como dijimos antes, se arreglan los estudios en grupos al rededor de un tema determinado y cada alumno está en libertad de elegir el grupo que convenga mejor a sus propósitos e inclinaciones. En ambos casos gran parte del programa es a elección del estudiante; es decir, que puede seleccionar de las clases que ofrece el colegio el número necesario para obtener la graduación.

El departamento de la Universidad Hárvard para alumnos no graduados, llamado Harvard College ofrece instrucción en las materias siguientes:

Antropología, astronomía, botánica, celta, química, filología clásica, literatura comparada, filología comparada, economía, educación, egiptología, ciencia de ingeniería, inglés, bellas artes, francés, geología y geografía, alemán, ciencias políticas, griego, historia, historia de las religiones, historia de la ciencia, filología india, italiano, latín, matemáticas, mineralogía y petrografía, música, holandés, paleontología, filosofía, física, fisiología, oratoria, romance y literatura, filología y romance, escandinavo, idioma e historia semíticos, eslavo, ética social, español y zoología. Esta lista indica el nivel de estudios en las mejores universidades norteamericanas para alumnos no graduados.

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[1] Además de las *high schools* públicas hay muchas escuelas privadas de segundo grado que ofrecen igualmente cursos de cuatro años y siguen el mismo programa que las escuelas públicas. El programa de la escuela secundaria se especifica más adelante. (Véase p. 96.) Los estudiantes del exterior pueden ingresar a las universidades norteamericanas presentando la prueba de educación preparatoria equivalente a la que se exige en los Estados Unidos. Los colegios de artes y ciencias de la mayor parte de las universidades admiten bajo examen a los candidatos que hubieren recibido preparación escolar en escuelas desconocidas a los directores de la universidad. (Véase p. 61 y siguientes.)

[2] Existe aún gran diversidad en el programa de los colegios, y de consiguiente en el valor de los grados. Para detalles más amplios de tales condiciones, véase la nota 1, p. 26.

La instrucción se ofrece en los colegios por medio de conferencias, recitaciones, discusiones, ensayos de laboratorio y diversas formas de temas escritos. Durante los primeros dos años y en las clases preparatorias de los diferentes cursos hay cierta tendencia a mayor regularidad. Los profesores asignan labor definida para cada clase: el estudiante debe dominar determinada parte de la materia en curso, ensayar los experimentos prescritos de laboratorio, escribir una composición sobre el tema señalado o leer cierto número de páginas; trabajos examinados en la lección siguiente. En los años subsiguientes la clase afecta menos regularidad, dejándose entregado al estudiante a sus propios recursos tanto como sea posible y examinándose su labor en conferencias periódicas.

Con motivo del largo período dedicado a la enseñanza primaria y secundaria, los estudiantes norteamericanos son generalmente de mayor edad que los extranjeros que han alcanzado igual grado de adelanto escolar. El término para el ingreso a los colegios norteamericanos es de 18 y 19 años, y la edad para obtener el grado se calcula generalmente entre los 22 y 23 años. Algunos colegios, sin embargo, permiten a los estudiantes vencer el curso en tres años tomando mayor labor que la considerada en el programa.

EL COLEGIO O ESCUELA DE INGENIERÍA.[1]

En combinación con el departamento de artes y ciencias para estudiantes no graduados se encuentra la escuela de ciencia de ingeniería aplicada. Ofrece a los graduados en las escuelas de segundo grado un curso de cuatro años para obtener el grado de B. en C. en cualquier ramo de ingeniería; v. g., civil, mecánica, de minas, metalúrgica, eléctrica, hidráulica, arquitectónica, química o de salubridad.[2] En algunas instituciones, la enseñanza en estos diversos ramos está dividida en secciones separadas; v. g., escuela de ingeniería de minas y escuela de ingeniería civil. La primera parte del curso de ingeniería se dedica especialmente al conocimiento completo de las matemáticas, física y química, ciencias fundamentales en que descansa toda la labor de ingeniería. El curso del primer año es igual por lo común para los estudiantes en cualquier ramo de ingeniería. En realidad la tendencia general se dirige a uniformar los estudios durante los primeros años del curso, encaminándolos a su fin determinado sólo durante el último o los dos últimos años del programa.

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[1] La palabra "escuela" es quizá la denominación más generalmente usada para designar las secciones universitarias; v. g., escuela de medicina, de jurisprudencia o de comercio. Sin embargo, muchas universidades emplean de preferencia el término de "colegio" o "departamento." (Véase más adelante.)

[2] El grado otorgado a la terminación de estos cursos no siempre es el de B. en C. Cornell, por ejemplo, confiere el grado de M. I. a todos aquellos que terminan el curso de ingeniería mecánica, eléctrica o de minas.

La escuela o colegio de ingeniería con sus diversas subdivisiones representa en el plan de educación norteamericana un departamento para alumnos no graduados, análogo al colegio de artes liberales, pues que admite estudiantes con igual preparación y confiere a sus candidatos el grado de bachiller.[1] Es, sin embargo, en espíritu y en tendencias una escuela profesional que habilita a los jóvenes para el ejercicio inmediato de su profesión como medio de subsistencia. Esta circunstancia afecta directamente en dos respectos al departamento de ingeniería. En primer lugar demuestra su eficacia como escuela profesional por el éxito constante de la labor de sus graduados poniéndola en el caso de sufrir las consecuencias inmediatamente si no conserva muy alto el estandarte de su enseñanza; mientras el colegio de artes liberales, que ofrece cultura general, no está sujeto a prueba de tal naturaleza. En segundo lugar, y como resultado de sus obligaciones profesionales, la labor de la escuela de ingeniería es más concreta y más práctica que la del colegio de artes liberales. No solamente en los extensos y bien equipados laboratorios y talleres de maquinaria de la misma universidad, sino también en talleres y factorías de particulares organizaciones industriales, recibe el candidato a ingeniero la instrucción que le servirá de base en las operaciones para aseguzarse la subsistencia.

El curso del departamento de ingeniería se determina por las exigencias de la profesión y está señalado de antemano en su mayor parte. La elección entre los diversos ramos de ingeniería constituye la principal ventaja para los estudiantes.

Últimamente se ha manifestado la tendencia de alargar el período de preparación para la profesión de ingeniero. Varias de las universidades más importantes ofrecen cursos de cinco y seis años en los diversos ramos de ingeniería. El curso de cinco años, que es el más frecuente, incluye labor considerable en el departamento de artes y ciencias, destinada a ensanchar la cultura del estudiante, o a especificar la instrucción en el ramo de ingeniería elegido por el alumno. Los grados de I. Elec., I. M., I. Civ., I. Agr., e I. Arq., se confieren generalmente a la terminación del curso especial superior y se consideran más importantes que el de bachiller en ciencias.

Instrucción posterior a la graduación para los grados de M. C., Dr. Fil., y Dr. C. en ingeniería se ofrece también ahora en las mejores universidades. Las condiciones de estudio para estos grados son semejantes, ya se trate de la ingeniería o de ciencia y artes únicamente. Trataremos este punto más adelante bajo el título de "Escuela para graduados." Las facilidades crecientes para estudios e investigaciones avanzadas, que representa el curso de cinco años y las clases para graduados en los diversos ramos de ingeniería, marcan la tendencia a prolongar el período de la enseñanza general y especial en este curso, de manera que abrace tantos años como el estudio de las antiguas profesiones.

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[1] Algunas instituciones, como Columbia y Hárvard, por ejemplo, han convertido en departamentos para graduados sus escuelas de ciencia aplicada de ingeniería.

EL COLEGIO O ESCUELA DE AGRICULTURA.

En 1862, bajo la actuación Morrill, el Congreso de los Estados Unidos concedió a cada estado ciertos lotes de terreno nacional, el producto de cuya venta debía aplicarse a formar un fondo para el establecimiento de colegios de agricultura y de arte mecánica.[1] Resoluciones posteriores del gobierno federal otorgaron un subsidio anual para el sostenimiento de dichas instituciones y para toda clase de investigaciones y ensayos de agricultura.[2] En los cincuenta y tres años transcurridos desde la aprobación de la ley original, aquellos colegios llamados "concesionarios" (land-grant), se han convertido en los centros más importantes para la enseñanza de las profesiones técnicas. En ciertos estados el lote concedido facilitó el establecimiento de universidades locales de manera que la universidad especial de veinte estados se designa ahora legalmente con el nombre de colegio concesionario.[3] Varias de estas instituciones, entre ellas la Universidad de Wisconsin, la Universidad de Illinóis, la Universidad de Minnesota y la Universidad de California, figuran entre las más importantes y mejor equipadas universidades de la nación.

Los gobiernos de los diferentes estados han otorgado igualmente rentas liberales crecientes para el sostenimiento de los departamentos de dichas instituciones. De consiguiente la agricultura y el arte mecánico ocupan una posición excepcionalmente privilegiada entre los estudios profesionales.

Los diversos ramos de ingeniería, de que nos ocupamos brevemente en la sección anterior, se enseñan en muchas otras instituciones además de los colegios concesionarios. En resumen, toda universidad bien equipada mantiene un departamento de ingeniería, y existen además numerosas escuelas especiales para esta ciencia; pero los colegios concesionarios tienen el monopolio de la instrucción especial en agricultura. Al describir los colegios o departamentos de agricultura como parte integrante de toda genuina universidad norteamericana, haremos notar que, con pocas excepciones, estos departamentos se encuentran sólo en conexión con las veinte universidades especiales que figuran entre las instituciones concesionarias.

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[1] La mecánica se considera como la base principal de los diversos estudios de ingeniería.

[2] En 1914 otorgó el congreso a cada estado un subsidio anual de $10,000 para amplificar la enseñanza de agricultura y economía doméstica. A esta suma se agrega una renta anual creciente dedicada al mismo objeto, que comenzó en 1915-16 y que llegará con el tiempo a $4,100,000 para repartirse entre los estados en proporción a la población rural de cada uno de ellos.

[3] En los otros veinte estados el colegio concesionario es una institución separada, independiente de la universidad del estado y rivalizando a menudo con ella en la matrícula de estudiantes y en la excelencia de sus cursos para alumnos no graduados, especialmente en la ciencia pura aplicada.

El típico colegio o departamento de agricultura ofrece a los graduados de las escuelas secundarias un curso de cuatro años en agricultura para el grado de B. en C. De igual manera que los departamentos de ingeniería se subdividen a menudo los de agricultura, siendo las escuelas o departamentos de selvicultura y economía doméstica las más frecuentes de aquellas subdivisiones. La labor de cada curso combina la instrucción en ciencias generales, idiomas y matemáticas con la instrucción técnica en agricultura y la práctica en laboratorios, lecherías, graneros y en las granjas en conexión con las universidades.

Las escuelas especiales de segundo grado en agricultura se mantienen también en relación con algunas instituciones locales; v. g., la Universidad de Minnesota, el Colegio de Agricultura en Colorado y el Colegio de Agricultura en Clemson (Carolina del Sur).

El colegio de agricultura es una escuela profesional. Su objeto principal es instruir a los estudiantes para el ejercicio inteligente de su profesión durante el curso de cuatro años que acabamos de mencionar. Pero, a fuer de instituciones locales y sostenidas ampliamente por fondos de la hacienda pública, los colegios o departamentos de agricultura tienen ciertas obligaciones hacia el estado. Pueden servir materialmente los intereses nacionales difundiendo información rural entre los administradores de las granjas del estado que no hubieren tenido ocasión de recibir instrucción profesional; y en efecto muchos colegios de agricultura se dedican a tal labor. Han inaugurado breves cursos de una a catorce semanas para dichos agricultores, y envían además conferencistas e instructores especiales a las comunidades rurales para ofrecer enseñanza práctica dentro de las mismas granjas.

Otra función importante de los colegios de agricultura consiste en ampliar esta ciencia por medio de experimentos e investigaciones. En esta labor ha prestado también ayuda eficaz el gobierno federal. Según resolución adoptada en 1887 las estaciones experimentales de agricultura debían establecerse en todos los estados, y se votó la suma anual de $15,000 para su sostenimiento. Esta cantidad anual ha subido posteriormente hasta $30,000. En la mayor parte de los estados, donde el colegio concesionario y la universidad local forman una sola institución, la estación experimental está unida a la universidad. Esta combinación procura facilidades incomparables para los ensayos de agricultura.

EL COLEGIO O ESCUELA DE MEDICINA VETERINARIA.

Varias universidades eminentes y colegios de agricultura y arte mecánica sostienen ahora escuelas de medicina veterinaria, donde se proporciona instrucción sobre las causas y tratamiento de las enfermedades de los animales, y sobre las bases de la higiene aplicada al ganado. La inmensa proporción de riqueza nacional invertida en ganado y lo que representa éste para la agricultura, así como la influencia de ciertas enfermedades de los animales, la tuberculosis especialmente, sobre la salud de la comunidad, dan especial importancia a la profesión de médico veterinario.

El colegio de medicina veterinaria ofrece a los graduados en escuelas secundarias un curso de tres años para el grado de Dr. Med. Vet. Este curso está prescrito rigurosamente. Combina la instrucción en las ciencias médicas fundamentales, química, anatomía y fisiología, con algunos ramos especiales como patología animal y medicina y cirugía veterinaria. La instrucción clínica se recibe en los hospitales en conexión con la escuela. Hay también oportunidad para obtener grados en ramos especiales de veterinaria.[1]

EL COLEGIO O ESCUELA COMERCIAL.

Entre las ramificaciones más modernas de las universidades norteamericanas se encuentran las escuelas o colegios de comercio o administración comercial. La genuina escuela comercial ofrece a los graduados en las escuelas secundarias un curso de cuatro años para el grado de B. en C. o B. en A. La primera parte del curso se dedica extensamente a las clases fundamentales como matemáticas, inglés, ciencias naturales, lenguas vivas, historia y economía. En los últimos dos años se encamina el estudio a materias técnicas más vastas, destinadas a procurar preparación general para la vida industrial, como las fases diversas de la administración comercial, derecho comercial y economía superior.

EL COLEGIO O ESCUELA DE PERIODISMO.

Las escuelas de periodismo se encuentran igualmente en la evolución moderna de algunas universidades. Ofrecen a los graduados en las escuelas secundarias un curso de cuatro años para el grado de bachiller en artes, bachiller en literatura y bachiller en periodismo. La labor de estas escuelas se compone de amplios estudios en ciencia social y en inglés, destinados a familiarizar al estudiante con las condiciones económicas y sociales y a desarrollar su facultad de expresión escrita. Estas clases ocupan dos años y se continuán con instrucción técnica sobre los métodos del periodismo moderno, incluyendo la práctica actual de reportajes, entrevistas y redacción de artículos. El objeto de esta escuela se manifesta en el anuncio oficial de la escuela de periodismo de la Universidad Columbia: "Formar mejores periodistas para obtener mejores periódicos y servir mejor las aspiraciones públicas."

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[1] El colegio de veterinaria en Cornell, en el estado de Nueva York, ofrece un curso a elección de cuatro años en medicina veterinaria.

EL COLEGIO O ESCUELA DE FARMACIA.

Las escuelas de farmacia, incluídas actualmente en el mayor número de las universidades más importantes, ofrecen generalmente cursos para obtener tres grados diferentes: Farm. G., Q. Farm. y B. Farm. Los requisitos para el ingreso son los mismos que se requieren en las escuelas y departamentos descritos anteriormente. El calificativo de farmacéutico graduado se confiere al vencer un curso de dos años, que consiste principalmente en instrucción en botánica, en análisis químico y en farmacia. Para conceder la licencia necesaria para ejercer la profesión de farmacéutico exigen algunos estados cierto tiempo de práctica en un laboratorio donde se preparen y expendan drogas, o el curso completo de instrucción en una escuela de farmacia. Hay cursos en esta materia arreglados para responder a tales requisitos.

El curso para obtener el grado de Q. F. (químico farmacéutico) dura tres años y "está especialmente designado para aquellos que desean ingresar al campo industrial de la química farmacéutica ó sea el análisis de drogas y alimentos."[1] Se proporciona instrucción más avanzada en farmacia en combinación con estudios generales como ciencias e idiomas extranjeros.

La cuatro años de curso para el grado de B. C. en Farm. incluyen la combinación de estudios de cultura general y de la labor avanzada en farmacia que deben practicar los candidatos al grado de Q. Farm.

Se ofrecen además facilidades para estudios especiales e investigaciones científicas en los departamentos de farmacia de las escuelas para graduados en las principales universidades. El objeto y método de los estudios es el mismo en cualquiera departamento. (Véase la descripción bajo el título de "Escuelas para graduados.") Los grados de M. A., M. C., Dr. Fil., Dr. C. y algunas veces Dr. Farm., se confieren a los estudiantes graduados en farmacia.

EL COLEGIO O ESCUELA DENTAL.

La organización de veintinueve universidades y colegios norteamericanos incluye también una escuela dental que ofrece a los graduados en la escuela secundaria un curso de tres años para obtener el grado de Dr. C. D., o Dr. Med. D. El programa procura en primer lugar el estudio de las materias científicas elementales que forman la base de la enseñanza médica: anatomía, química, bacteriología y patología. A éste sigue la instrucción clínica y práctica en los laboratorios incluyendo las operaciones y prótesis dental. Las clínicas de las escuelas dentales de importancia procuran a los estudiantes amplias facilidades para practicar en todas las fases de la cirugía dental.

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[1] Tomado del catálogo de la Universidad de Wisconsin.

Aun cuando la ciencia dental constituye una profesión separada y su enseñanza se adquiere en escuelas profesionales independientes, es considerada siempre como una ramificación del estudio de la medicina. En consecuencia se nota la tendencia a combinar la instrucción en ciencia dental con la medicina general. Siete escuelas dentales poseen ahora departamentos para ciencia médica; y uno de los estados ha provisto una ley que exige a los practicantes dentistas cierto grado de conocimientes en medicina general. Aun cuando parece poco probable que los demás estados adopten inmediatamente esta medida radical hay una corriente marcada de opinión para alargar a cuatro años el curso de medicina y cirugía dental. Algunas escuelas dentales responden a esta exigencia ofreciendo enseñanza científica en cursos posteriores, a los graduados en ciencia dental y a todos aquellos que han recibido enseñanza práctica.

Es conveniente llamar la atención sobre la excelencia de las escuelas y clínicas dentales en los Estados Unidos de Norte América. El éxito de los dentistas norteamericanos se debe en gran parte a las facilidades admirables que ofrecen los Estados Unidos para la enseñanza de esta profesión.

EL COLEGIO O ESCUELA DE PEDAGOGÍA.

Entre las importantes instituciones con que contribuyen los Estados Unidos a la enseñanza profesional puede contarse la creación de escuelas especiales de educación. Hace largo tiempo que existían escuelas normales para la enseñanza de los maestros de escuelas primarias, debiendo su origen a ensayos europeos en la misma dirección.[1] Pero la escuela de pedagogía, cuyo objeto es preparar futuros maestros para *high-schools*, directores, inspectores y superintendentes para las escuelas nacionales, es una de las modernas y genuinas instituciones norteamericanas. Nació su fundación de la necesidad evidente de pedagogos y directores educados para la labor de la instrucción pública secundaria y administración de las escuelas. Con pocas excepciones esta escuela se ha desarrollado más vigorosamente en los lugares en que ocupa el primer lugar la universidad del estado. (Véase especialmente el plan de organización de la Universidad Columbia, la Universidad de Chicago y la Universidad de Missouri, Sección VI, págs. 148–150; 178–179; 184–186.)

La genuina escuela de educación ofrece a los graduados en las escuelas secundarias un curso de cuatro años para obtener el grado de bachiller.[2] El curso combina generalmente tres diversos elementos: enseñanza general en artes y ciencias, especificación en una o dos materias que el candidato pretenda enseñar más tarde e instrucción teórica y práctica en pedagogía.

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[1] La descripción del programa de la escuela normal no tiene objeto en este boletín. Puede decirse que por regla general, los requisitos de ingreso en las mejores escuelas normales son semejantes a los de los colegios de artes y ciencias. Para los graduados en *high-schools* el curso es de dos o tres años, insistiendo en la teoría y práctica pedagógicas, y confiere frecuentemente un grado especial. Los estudiantes extranjeros, interesados en la enseñanza de escuela normal, pueden dirigirse al Departamento de Educación solicitando amplia información.

[2] Diversos bachilleratos se confieren por labor pedagógica; v. g., B. Ped., B. Lit., B. A., B. C. en Ed. y otros más.

Entre los temas estrictamente profesionales se insiste sobre la fisiología, la historia y la filosofía de la educación, así como sobre la organización y administración de las escuelas. Las escuelas de pedagogía mejor equipadas procuran además facilidades a los estudiantes para observar a los expertos en enseñanza y para enseñar por sí mismos bajo diestra dirección.

Existe marcada tendencia a ensanchar el programa de las escuelas de educación o pedagogía, amplificando en consecuencia la capacidad de enseñanza profesional exigida a los maestros de las escuelas secundarias. La adición de un quinto año al curso de pedagogía es la manifestación de tal tendencia. A la terminación de este período se confiere el grado de M. A. De esta manera la escuela de pedagogía va convirtiéndose poco a poco en escuela para graduados. No pasará probablemente mucho tiempo antes de que la cultura y temas de información general queden relegados al colegio de letras y de que la escuela de pedagogía asuma el carácter de escuela para graduados ofreciendo únicamente instrucción profesional a los graduados en colegio. El grado de doctor en filosofía se obtiene ahora en cursos de pedagogía para graduados dictados generalmente en los departamentos de este ramo en las universidades más eminentes.

LAS ANTIGUAS PROFESIONES.

El grupo de escuelas que acabamos de describir procura la enseñanza de aquellas profesiones de origen relativamente reciente que se han elevado en los últimos tiempos al rango de especial preparación profesional. De otro lado, las primeras profesiones en teología, jurisprudencia y medicina retroceden a confundirse en el programa de las universidades europeas. Asociábase cierto prestigio superior a aquellas antiguas profesiones aun en la democrática república de los Estados Unidos, idea que se refleja en la tendencia a exigir en las escuelas de jurisprudencia, teología y medicina, requisitos de admisión y graduación superiores a los que se requieren en los demás departamentos. Puede decirse así que estos cursos constituyen un tipo diferente y más avanzado de institutos profesionales dentro de la organización de la universidad.

EL COLEGIO O ESCUELA DE TEOLOGÍA.

La más antigua de las escuelas profesionales en los Estados Unidos es la escuela de teología. En realidad el colegio fué establecido, como lo explicamos más adelante, para procurar ministros capaces a la iglesia cristiana protestante. La instrucción teológica ha formado siempre parte del programa de las antiguas universidades. Más aún; dichas universidades eran en sí mismas escuelas teológicas hasta que, en la última centuria, se consignó la teología a un departamento especial.

La escuela teológica moderna asume dos aspectos completamente diversos: o es francamente una escuela sectaria de teología, o por el contrario representa, contra lo que juzgaban imposible los inflexibles padres de la nación, una escuela teológica libre, con el fin de estudiar "todas las materias relacionadas con la teología . . . con igual libertad de espíritu a la que se estila en los colegios para el estudio de la filosofía, la historia o la literatura clásica."[1] Al mencionar el plan y los requisitos de la escuela típica de teología se sobrentiende que algunas de aquellas escuelas están en conexión casi exclusiva con universidades sectarias, mientras que otras son instituciones completamente independientes.

Las escuelas más poderosas de teología protestante ofrecen a los graduados en colegios de reconocida categoría o en cualesquiera otro que pueda proporcionar equivalente preparación, un curso de tres años para obtener el grado de B. en teología sagrada Este curso es enteramente profesional, variando solamente el rumbo teológico según sea la denominación religiosa que mantiene la escuela.

Los requisitos de ingreso para las escuelas católicas de teología son algo más severos. (Véase Sección VI, págs. 141–143, Universidad Católica de América.)

EL COLEGIO O ESCUELA DE JURISPRUDENCIA.

El código legal inglés y norteamericano difieren completamente del que rige al mayor número de las otras naciones. Con este motivo no serán muchos los estudiantes que se sientan atraídos a nuestras escuelas de jurisprudencia con la idea de ejercer la profesión en su propio país. Sin embargo, abogados y juristas tienen la convicción de que el estudio de las leyes inglesas y del código vigente en Europa y la América latina es de gran valor para los juristas de cualquiera nacionalidad. El espíritu y las tendencias de cada nación se reflejan en sus leyes; y el conocimiento de ellas tiende a ensanchar las simpatías internacionales. Por esta razón, como para hacer completa mención de las diversas partes de que se compone la universidad norteamericana, incluímos en este estudio la escuela de jurisprudencia. Llamamos especialmente la atención hacia los magníficos cursos en jurisprudencia, derecho internacional y diplomacia que ofrecen las siguientes instituciones: la Universidad Columbia, Universidad Yale, Universidad George Wáshington, Universidad Hárvard, y la escuela de derecho de la Universidad Tulane de Louisiana. El código de leyes del estado de Louisiana está basado en el código español y, por consiguiente, estrechamente relacionado con el sistema vigente en los países latinoamericanos. Puede encontrarse razón detallada de las facilidades que ofrecen estas instituciones en las páginas 138–141; 143–144; 161–162; 165–167; 184–186.

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[1] Tomado del programa de la escuela Harvard de teología.

Las principales escuelas de derecho norteamericanas ofrecen a los estudiantes que hayan recibido por lo menos dos años de enseñanza en los colegios un curso de tres años en derecho común y legal para obtener el grado de bachiller en leyes.

LA ESCUELA DE MEDICINA.

Ninguna otra escuela profesional en conexión con las universidades norteamericanas ha alcanzado tan rápido y notable desarrollo en los últimos años como la escuela de medicina. Tres vías de progreso se han marcado especialmente: el perfeccionamiento de los equipos de laboratorio, debido a liberales subsidios del estado y a donativos particulares; el incremento de comodidades en los hospitales; y la capacidad mayor del plan de admisión. Como resultado de este desarrollo las principales escuelas médicas de los Estados Unidos son inmejorables respecto al equipo material y a los requisitos para ingreso y graduación, que demandan preparación tan amplia como la que se exige en las escuelas más avanzadas de las naciones de mayor cultura y civilización.

El sistema de admisión preconizado por la Asociación Médica Americana, y puesto en práctica por las escuelas de medicina más progresistas, se ha hecho posible y permanente por la acción posterior de las juntas de estado que otorgan el diploma y preparan, en sus respectivos estados, la educación exigida a los practicantes en medicina. De esta manera ha alcanzado la medicina una altura en consonancia con su antigüedad y con la importancia de esta profesión.[1]

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[1] Los estudiantes extranjeros que no conocen las condiciones de la educación norteamericana deben recordar que existen muchas escuelas de medicina de menor entidad y muchas instituciones particulares que explotan determinado descubrimiento terapéutico. El resultado de la autonomía de los diversos estados tocante a educación es la irregularidad de los requisitos exigidos para ejercer una profesión, no sólo en medicina sino también en jurisprudencia, farmacia y muchas otras. La regulación de los diplomas es vaga todavía en muchos estados. Además, como puede notarse, no existe legislación uniforme para la incorporación de las instituciones que otorgan grados. El hecho de que una persona use el título de doctor o haya recibido el grado de B. A. o. B. Jur. no significa, por tanto, que su educación haya sido suficiente o bien encaminada. Mucha gente poco escrupulosa y aun personas bien intencionadas pero ignorantes han aprovechado de esta circunstancia para fundar en algunos estados ciertas instituciones que ofrecen enseñanza de colegio y profesional careciendo del debido equipo material y de maestros capaces de proporcionar una instrucción eficaz. Para responder a este inconveniente damos una lista clasificada por la Asociación Médica Americana de las escuelas de medicina más caracterizadas. (Véase págs 219–220.)

Los estudiantes que deseen otra clase de enseñanza, ya sea general o profesional, pueden acudir con plena seguridad a cualquiera de las instituciones consideradas en este boletín. Se les invita asimismo a dirigirse al Departamento de Educación de los Estados Unidos donde encontrarán imparcial y detallada información respecto a la clase de instituciones escolares y a las facilidades que ofrecen, hállense o no consideradas en esta publicación.

A pesar de las desigualdades existentes entre las escuelas de medicina es justo insistir sobre el programa admirable de la instrucción médica. Este programa ha sido estudiado por las instituciones principales, de las cuales hay 67 consagradas por la Asociación Médica Americana como de la clase más excelente que se pueda desear. (Véase págs. 219–220.)

La poderosa influencia del estímulo para poner en práctica mejoras que la asociación había señalado, ilustra claramente el benéfico efecto que es capaz de producir una agrupación voluntariamente educadora, aun en instituciones independientes sobre las cuales no ejerce la menor presión. (Véase pág. 11.)

La escuela de medicina ocupa en las universidades el mismo lugar que las demás escuelas para la enseñanza de profesiones tradicionales. El departamento de medicina en las mejores universidades requiere para el ingreso un curso de cuatro años en high-school, incluyendo dos años de latín y dos años de estudio de colegio que incluya por lo menos un año de física, química y biología, con suficiente dominio del francés y alemán para poder leer en ambos idiomas. Ofrece a los estudiantes que llenen estos requisitos un curso de cuatro años, que consiste en estudios de laboratorio, clínica y didáctica abrazando la medicina teórica y práctica, para obtener el grado de Dr. Med. Todas las escuelas de medicina de alto rango están asociadas con hospitales donde los estudiantes sirven como internos y tienen ocasión de observar prácticamente los síntomas y el tratamiento de las enfermedades.

Inclusa en el "sistema ideal" propuesto por la Asociación Médica Americana figura la recomendación de que se agregue un quinto año de estudios al curso de medicina, durante todo el cual actúen los estudiantes como internos en los hospitales. Esta recomendación ha sido adoptada ya por muchas de las principales escuelas de la nación, y otras, aun cuando no incluyen el año de internado en su programa, ofrecen a sus graduados amplias facilidades para ejercer este privilegio.

Una de las ventajas implantadas recientemente en la educación médica es el establecimiento de cursos posteriores para los graduados dedicados especialmente a estudios e investigaciones avanzadas; pero aun no figuran en el programa para obtener grados superiores en medicina. Se ha creado, sin embargo, un nuevo grado que ha obtenido general aprobación: el de doctor de salubridad pública. Este grado se confiere a los que han recibido el de Dr. Med., después de dos años de estudios posteriores dedicados a investigaciones especiales sobre los problemas de higiene y enfermedades de la comunidad.

Muchas de las universidades más importantes of recen cursos de seis y siete años combinando la labor médica con la del departamento de artes y ciencias para obtener ambos grados, el de B. A., B. C. y el de Dr. en medicina.

Los estudiantes de países tropicales encontrarán especial interés en los excelentes cursos de medicina tropical que ofrecen las escuelas de la Universidad Tulane de Louisiana y de la Universidad Hárvard.

LA ESCUELA PARA GRADUADOS.

La piedra fundamental de las universidades norteamericanas es la escuela de artes y ciencias para graduados. Designada primeramente como paralela a la facultad de filosofía de las universidades alemanas, y dando instrucción solamente en ciencia pura y humanidades, la escuela para graduados ha aventajado la idea original respecto de su funcionamiento. La escuela para graduados en las grandes universidades norteamericanas combina, en unidad administrativa,[1] la enseñanza superior y tódas las facilidades para estudios de investigación que ofrece la universidad en cualquiera de sus departamentos. Según esta combinación los graduados en bachillerato que deseen profundizar en ingeniería, en medicina o en farmacia, lo mismo que en ciencia pura y humanidades, pueden ingresar en la escuela para graduados.

La escuela norteamericana para graduados tiene doble objeto. El primero, cronológicamente hablando, es enseñar a los estudiantes bien preparados las más avanzadas y particulares fases de los cursos que ofrece la universidad. Más importante sin embargo, si bien el segundo en cuanto a su desarrollo, es el deber de incrementar los conocimientos de la humanidad. La investigación es la savia vital de la escuela para graduados. Esta escuela se diferencia de las ordinarias escuelas profesionales en que se dedica especialmente a labor de investigación. Como regla general las escuelas de medicina y de ingeniería tienen por objeto procurar al estudiante un caudal de conocimientos trazado de antemano y reconocido como de valor profesional, formando así los candidatos a profesiones bien definidas. La escuela para graduados insiste en primer término en cierta clase de estudios más avanzados. Exige que los maestros se preocupen activamente de ensanchar las fronteras del saber y que dirijan a los estudiantes en la vía de investigaciones particulares. La vitalidad de la escuela para graduados puede juzgarse con exactitud por la cantidad y calidad de su potencia creadora.

La educación que tiene por objeto desarrollar la potencia creadora es nueva todavía en los Estados Unidos. En razón de sus fines la escuela para graduados es menos susceptible de sistematizar que las otras descritas anteriormente. Su excelencia dependerá siempre en gran parte de la originalidad y capacidad de sus maestros. No es posible, sin embargo, que dos escuelas, por admirablemente dirigidas que se encuentren, sean de igual fuerza educadora en todos los terrenos; ni, de otro lado, que la misma escuela tenga el monopolio de la enseñanza más avanzada y estudios especiales en los diferentes ramos del saber. Probablemente una será superior en psicología, otra en economía y la de más allá en química. Esta variación es inherente a los cursos de la escuela de graduados, y ha caracterizado siempre también a los departamentos experimentales de las universidades europeas que cuentan historia de mucha mayor duración.

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[1] Esta fusión no se realiza en todas partes. Por ejemplo, la Universidad Columbia sostiene una facultad de filosofía, una facultad de ciencias políticas y otra de pura ciencia; la Universidad Hárvard tiene una escuela para graduados en artes y ciencias, una escuela de ciencia aplicada, otra para graduados en administración comercial y otra para graduados en medicina. La descripción general del funcionamiento y las facilidades que ofrece la escuela para graduados se aplican, sin embargo, a estas y otras instituciones que no tienen departamentos para graduados combinados en una sola unidad.

Dando por sentado estas inevitables desigualdades, es digno de notarse que tanto las grandes instituciones independientes del este como las principales universidades nacionales del oeste y el oeste central, han tomado las disposiciones necesarias para asegurar un alto nivel general a la instrucción para los graduados. Han invertido ingentes sumas en bibliotecas y laboratorios, y han competido entre todas para ocupar como maestros a los pedagogos más distinguidos que se pudiera encontrar. Como resultado de estos esfuerzos podemos asegurar que en ninguna parte se obtienen mayores ventajas materiales para los estudios superiores y de investigación. Ciertos profesores norteamericanos figuran igualmente entre los mejores y se han conquistado fama universal. En resumen, ningún otro departamento de educación superior en los Estados Unidos ha experimentado tan rápido y admirable desenvolvimiento. La mayor parte de las escuelas para graduados se han establecido en los últimos veinte años. Apenas hace diez años que el aprecio nacional por el mérito de la investigación hizo posible la expansión de las universidades, aumentando la matrícula de 4,340 alumnos en 1893 a 7,911 en 1903, y a 13,094 en 1914. Un aumento proporcional de volúmenes de monografías científicas se ha publicado durante este período por las universidades.

De consiguiente puede afirmarse que los estudiantes del exterior encontrarán ahora en las escuelas para graduados de las universidades norteamericanas facilidades tan amplias para el estudio especial y vastas investigaciones, como las que ofrecen las facultades de filosofía y los institutos científicos de las universidades europeas. Dichos estudiantes buscarán naturalmente las instituciones que procuren mayores ventajas y que posean los maestros más eminentes en el ramo especial en que se encuentren interesados.

Función subordinada de las escuelas para graduados es la preparación de maestros para las instituciones superiores. En realidad es costumbre de las autoridades respectivas exigir de los candidatos para la enseñanza superior cierto tiempo de estudio, más o menos largo, en los cursos para graduados; pero no existe aún definida adaptación de estos cursos a los requisitos profesionales de los futuros pedagogos. Las escuelas norteamericanas para graduados, como las universidades europeas, han procedido siempre en este asunto bajo el supuesto de que la condición más importante para el maestro de estudiantes adultos es conocer a fondo la materia de que se trata. El método de presentarla al alumno puede dejarse entonces completamente a su criterio.

La genuina escuela norteamericana para graduados admite solamente a aquellos estudiantes que hayan obtenido su grado de bachiller en un colegio o universidad de reconocida categoría. Confiere dos clases de títulos: el grado de maestro[1] y el de doctor.[2]

Para obtener el grado de maestro se requiere un año de estudio posterior a los cursos para graduados, que se dedica generalmente a profundizar a lo sūmo tres materias, una de las cuales, llamada la materia principal, recibe la atención preferente del alumno.[3] Muchas universidades exigen además una tesis concretando el resultado de un pequeño estudio de investigación.

El período mínimo de estudio posterior a los cursos para graduados que se requiere para el grado de doctor es generalmente de tres años. El tiempo dedicado y el número de clases que se hubieren llevado tienen, sin embargo, importancia secundaria. Para recibir el grado se necesita no sólo que demuestre el candidato en el examen su dominio de la materia especial a que se haya dedicado sino que, por medio de una tesis o una disertación, contribuya con alguna idea original al conocimiento de dicha materia. Muchas universidades exigen que se publique aquella disertación. El examen es oral y escrito. En resumen, los requisitos para el grado de doctor en filosofía en los Estados Unidos de Norte América corren paralelos a los que se exigen en las universidades alemanas para el mismo grado. Las universidades norteamericanas han resuelto últimamente requerir de sus candidatos preparación escolar algo más extensa y tesis de mayor importancia.

ESCUELAS DE VERANO.

El año académico se prolonga nueve meses más o menos. Extiéndese generalmente desde mediados de septiembre hasta mediados de junio. Muchos colegios y universidades sostienen además una escuela especial de verano durante las seis semanas del período de vacaciones, u ofrecen sesiones continuadas durante toda la temporada de estío. Las escuelas de verano, limitadas generalmente a departamentos de artes y ciencias para estudiantes graduados y no graduados, tienen dos objetos principales. Ofrecen primeramente cursos especiales de estudio profesional a los maestros de escuelas primarias y secundarias; y facilitan a los estudiantes de colegios y universidades, que no hubieren podido completar la labor requerida durante el curso regular, los medios para subsanar esta deficiencia. Además, las escuelas de verano se ven a menudo favorecidas con la asistencia de gran número de personas de clases diferentes; de manera que, aun cuando tienen su programa arreglado especialmente para atender a las necesidades de los maestros, procuran también al estudiante que no está interesado en la pedagogía, cursos en que figuran casi todas las materias que dicta la institución durante el curso regular de invierno. Clases superiores no se ofrecen generalmente en el estío.

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[1] M. A., M. C. Com., M. Selv., M. Lit., M. Ped., M. C. y maestro de ciencias en Agr., Cer. ingenieria; en I. Q., Civ., Elec., Mec., Met. y de minas. (El título de maestro, que adoptamos como equivalente de *master* en inglés, es superior al de bachiller y anterior al de doctor.—N. de la T.)

[2] Dr. Fil., Dr. C. y Dr. Farm.

[3] En las universidades Yale y Johns Hopkins se requieren dos años de estudio posterior al grado de bachiller para obtener el título de maestro. (Véase Sec. IV, págs. 138–140; 163.

Las escuelas de verano son especialmente ventajosas para el estudiante extranjero. Si llega a los Estados Unidos en junio o a principios de julio, puede utilizar el tiempo preparándose en una escuela de verano para la matrícula regular del año. Ofrecen además facilidades para el estudio del inglés. Después que el estudiante haya comenzado su curso de colegio o profesional puede acortar el período de estudios o aprender algún curso de las otras universidades frecuentando las escuelas de verano. Es posible también avanzar en una sexta o cuarta parte la labor de un año durante las clases de la temporada de estío.

EQUIPO DE LAS INSTITUCIONES DE EDUCACIÓN.

Tal es, en pocas palabras, la organización de la genuina universidad norteamericana; pero sería incompleta la descripción de estas instituciones si no hiciéramos mención, siquiera brevemente, del lujo admirable de instrumentos y facilidades materiales que ofrece cada una de ellas. En ningún país como en el nuestro ha recibido la educación tan amplios y generosos donativos de personas filantrópicas, valiosos presentes que han ido a enriquecer las universidades; y de otro lado, los prósperos municipios han contribuído con ingentes sumas al equipo de las instituciones de sus respectivos estados. Así, las opulentas universidades están provistas de cuanto es posible imaginar para la eficacia de su cometido.[1] La descripción detallada de una sola de estas universidades ocuparía demasiado espacio en una revista de esta naturaleza; pero por las cifras abajo indicadas podrá cualquier extranjero darse cuenta de la magnitud de estos establecimientos y del valor de los terrenos y edificios según la estadística; Universidad de Illinóis, $3,895,970; Universidad de Michigan, $4,627,347; Universidad de Wisconsin, $6,444,626; Universidad Cornell, $7,627,347; Universidad de California, $9,865,492; Universidad Hárvard, $11,000,000; Universidad de Chicago, $11,698,223.

CENTROS ESPECIALES DE INVESTIGACIÓN.

La educación superior norteamericana ha adquirido últimamente mayor impulso con el establecimiento de centros especiales para investigaciones científicas y sociológicas. La mayor parte de estos centros debe su fundación a la filantropía de un solo individuo de gran riqueza. Aun cuando no son instituciones especialmente educadoras facilitan numerosas investigaciones que no solamente influyen sobre el espíritu y la práctica de la educación sino que realzan el prestigio de la ciencia en los Estados Unidos. De consiguiente deben considerarse entre los recursos científicos de esta nación. Las principales de estas instituciones son: la Fundación Rússell Sage, la Institución Carnegie, la Educación General, la Fundación Carnegie para el perfeccionamiento de la enseñanza y el Instituto Rockeféller para investigaciones médicas.

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[1] Para detalles de laboratorio y bibliotecas, vease la Sec. IV. Llamamos especialmente la atencion hacia el enorme y rápido incremento de las bibliotecas de las instituciones principales.

CAPÍTULO III.

ESCUELAS INDEPENDIENTES TÉCNICAS Y PROFESIONALES.

Además de las grandes universidades que ofrecen instrucción en casi todos los ramos del saber, incluyendo en su organización todos los tipos de escuelas superiores profesionales, hay gran número de instituciones de organización menos compleja. En efecto, como ha quedado ya establecido, la universidad es relativamente una creación reciente. Muchos de los otros colegios, escuelas e institutos son de origen anterior a las universidades. Y es también positivo que la enseñanza profesional puede ser tan concienzuda y económica en los centros creados exclusivamente para tal objeto como en las demás instituciones. Algunas de las principales escuelas de ingeniería, medicina, medicina dental, jurisprudencia, teología y otras profesiones son centros independientes que no tienen relación con ninguna universidad.

El Instituto de Tecnología de Massachusetts,[1] por ejemplo, ofrece cursos en los diferentes ramos de ingeniería y ciencia aplicada. El Instituto Politécnico Rénsselaer,[2] se dedica especialmente a la ingeniería civil, eléctrica, química y mecánica. El Instituto de Tecnología Stevens,[3] ofrece cursos solamente en ingeniería mecánica. El Colegio de Médicos y Cirujanos de Báltimore, y la Escuela Médica Jéfferson de Filadelfia no están afiliados a universidad alguna. Las escuelas teológicas son también independientes en su mayor parte, como la Institución Teológica Bautista Newton, el Seminario Teológico del Sínodo General de la Iglesia Evangélica Luterana en los Estados Unidos y casi todos los seminarios teológicos católicos. Varios estados han establecido colegios especiales de agricultura y artes mecánicas siguiendo el sistema de los colegios concesionarios[4] independientes de las universidades de los estados, como por ejemplo el Colegio de Agricultura de Míchigan y el Colegio de Agricultura y Artes Mecánicas del Estado de Iowa.[5]

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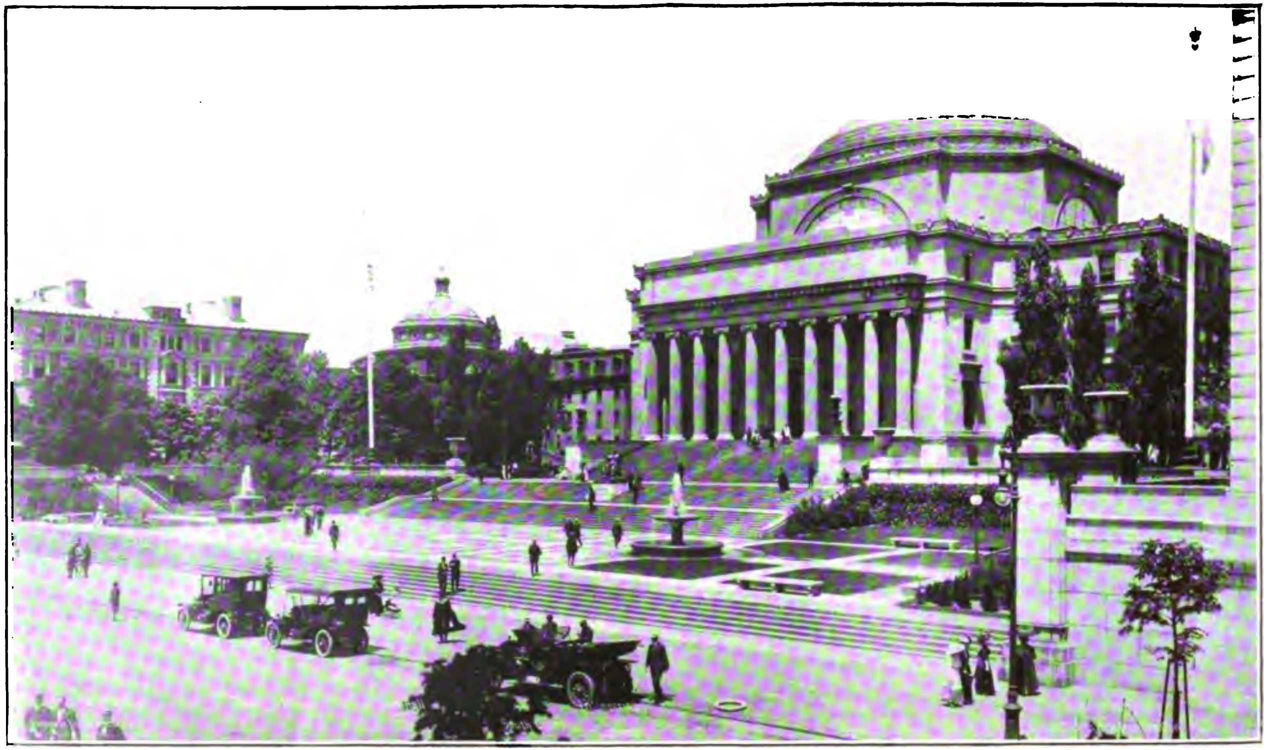
[1] Véase Sec. VI, págs. 168–169.

[2] Véase págs. 190–192

[3] Véase pág. 184.

[4] Véase pág. 19.

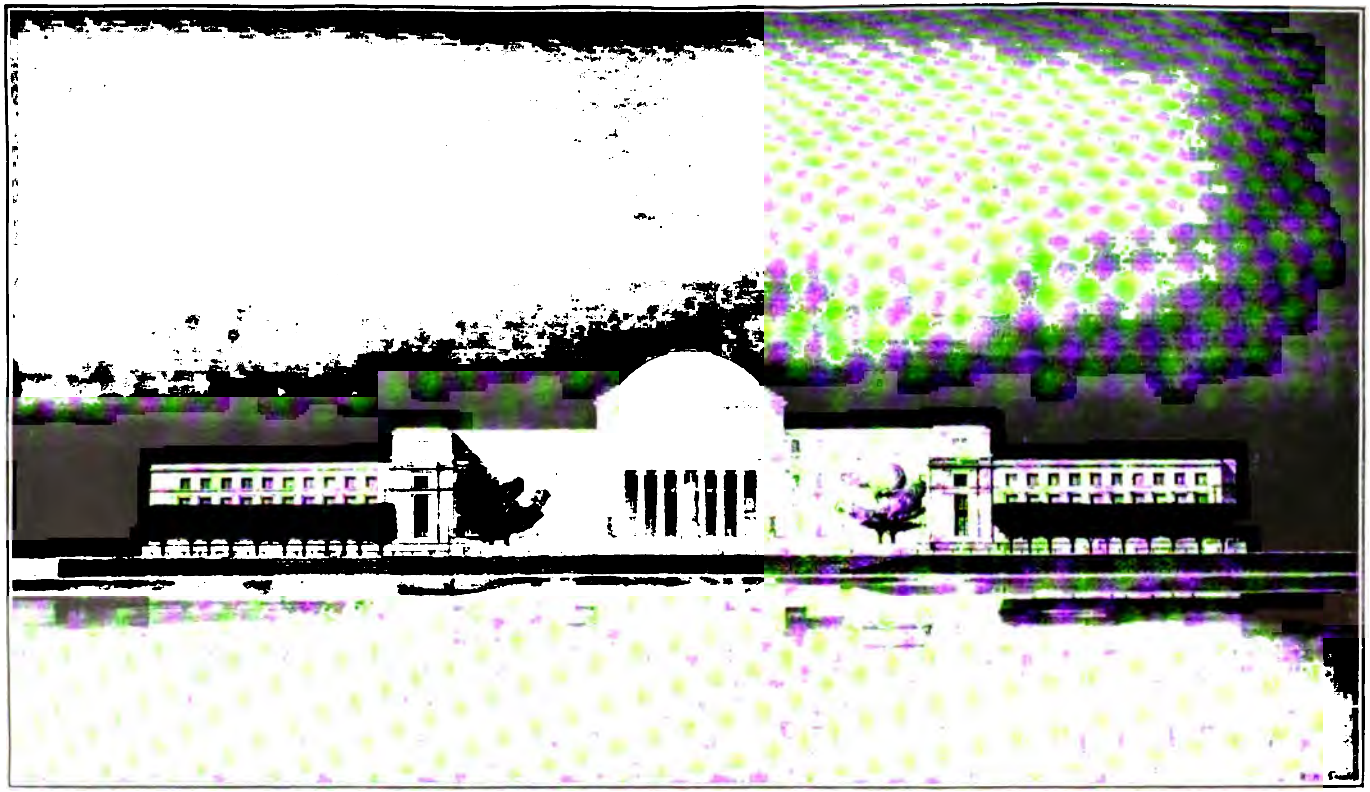
[5] Para mayor información véase la Sec. VI, págs. 157–158.



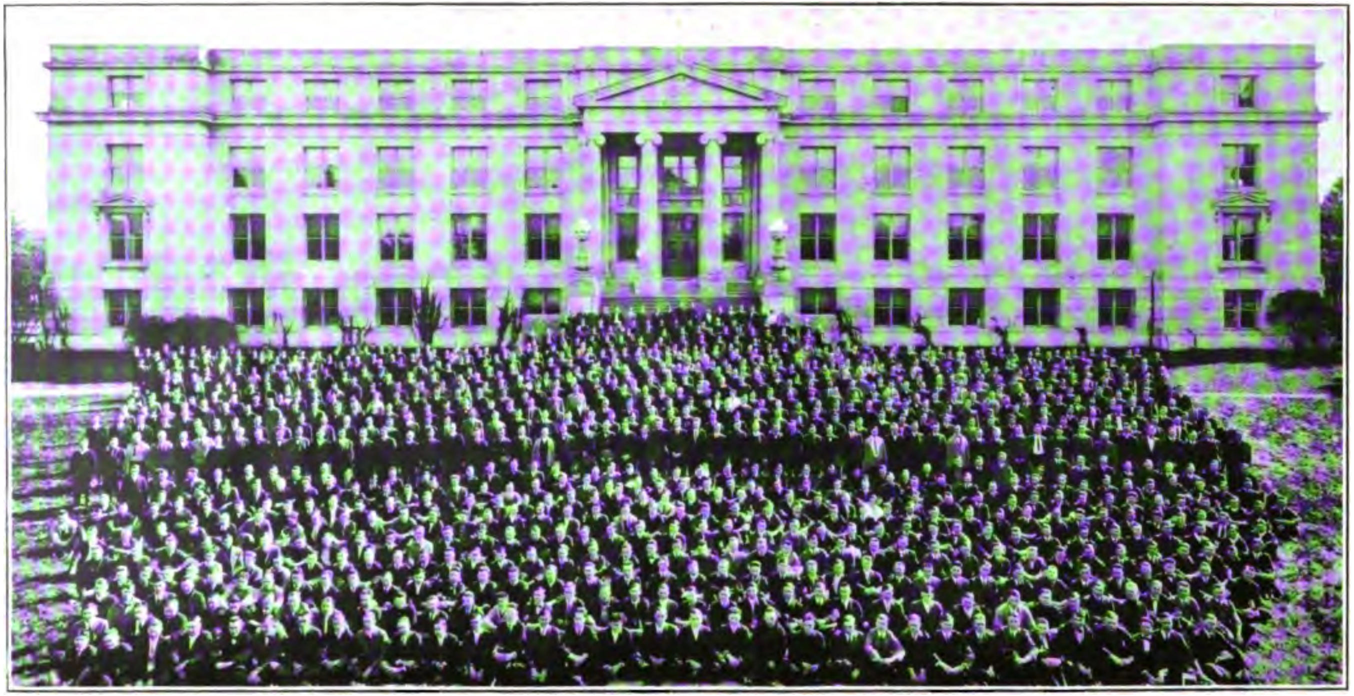
BIBLIOTECA, UNIVERSIDAD COLUMBIA, CIUDAD DE NUEVA YORK.

A. HARVARD HALL, UNO DE LOS MÁS ANTIGUOS EDIFICIOS UNIVERSITARIOS, UNIVERSIDAD HARVARD, CAMBRIDGE, MASS.

B. PARQUES DEL COLEGIO HARVARD, UNIVERSIDAD HARVARD, CAMBRIDGE, MASS.



NUEVOS EDIFICIOS DEL INSTITUTO DE TECNOLOGÍA DE MASSACHUSETTS, CAMBRIDGE, MASS.



EDIFICIO DE AGRICULTURA (AGRICULTURAL HALL) COLEGIO DEL ESTADO IOWA.

En su programa y organización los cursos ofrecidos en estas instituciones independientes son semejantes a los correspondientes cursos profesionales en los departamentos de las grandes universidades. Algunas de las escuelas de ingeniería se han hecho, en verdad, famosas en todo el mundo por la excelencia de la labor llevada a cabo en uno o varios de sus departamentos.

CAPÍTULO IV.

COLEGIOS INDEPENDIENTES Y COLEGIOS SECTARIOS.

Las instituciones más numerosas que no se encuentran incluídas en la organización de las universidades, son los colegios independientes que ofrecen cursos en artes y ciencias para obtener el grado de bachiller.[1] Presentan gran variedad de organización y casi igual variedad en su programa; sin embargo de que en ciertas materias tienen reglas generales.

Por lo común los colegios independientes ofrecen instrucción en radio más limitado que el que procuran las grandes universidades para el grado de bachiller. Por ejemplo, en vez de las cuarenta y cinco clases que ofrece Hárvard a elección en los cursos para estudiantes no graduados, el Colegio Cárleton ofrece instrucción en las materias siguientes: astronomía, Biblia, biología, química, economía, educación, inglés, francés, alemán, griego, geología, hebreo, latín, historia, matemáticas, filosofía, física, ciencias políticas y administrativas, y sociología. El Colegio Williams la procura en artes, astronomía, biología, química, economía, inglés, alemán, geología, ciencias políticas y administrativas, historia, latín, matemáticas, filosofía, física, oratoria y romance. El Colegio Reed ofrece clases en las materias siguientes: biología, química, clásicos, economía, educación, inglés, idiomas germánicos, historia y ciencias políticas, matemáticas, filosofía, física, psicología, romance y sociología.

Como se ve, el programa de estas instituciones se acerca más al de los liceos franceses y los gimnasios y *Oberrealschule* alemanes, con un curso de estudios sancionado por larga tradición como enseñanza apropiada para obtener el primer grado en artes.

Con referencia al principio de selección mediante el cual puede elegir el estudiante determinado número de clases para formar su curso, han opuesto ciertos colegios de alto rango inveterada convicción contra esta nueva teoría. Por ejemplo, las principales instituciones católicas, organizadas bajo programa rígido de educación, otorgan muy poca libertad al estudiante en las clases de artes. Los cursos para el grado de B. A. en el Colegio Wábash y en el Colegio Wílliam

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[1] Algunas de estas instituciones se llaman universidades Véase anteriormente, pág. 15.

Jéwell están también completamente prescritos de antemano. De otro lado, muchos de estos colegios independientes conceden tantas facilidades para la elección como sus recursos lo permiten. Estas diferencias en el programa académico pueden influir de manera decisiva en los estudiantes extranjeros interesados en la educación de los colegios de los Estados Unidos.

Sin embargo, la mejor prueba de la excelencia de un colegio no reside en la cantidad de cursos ofrecidos sino en la calidad de la labor que realiza. Los colegios más importantes, quizá la cuarta parte de los existentes, requieren norma tan elevada para el grado de bachiller como la que se exige en las mejores universidades. Estas instituciones lo reconocen como todo el mundo y aceptan para los estudios superiores a los graduados en dichos colegios bajo las mismas condiciones que a sus propios graduados.[1] De consiguiente los estudiantes extranjeros pueden elegir con igual confianza un colegio independiente o los departamentos llamados colegios en las grandes universidades, para obtener los grados de B. en artes y B. C., siempre que el colegio elegido responda a la educación válida de actualidad.

Entre los colegios cuyos grados son válidos en las universidades hay algunos que ofrecen instrucción en el grupo circunscrito de materias que ha formado durante varias generaciones la base para el curso de B. A.[2] mientras otros centros se aproximan más al programa del departamento para alumnos no graduados en las universidades.[3]

Verosímilmente la diferencia más notable entre las universidades y los colegios independientes consiste en la diferencia de sus dimensiones, que implica sin duda alguna gran diferencia en la vida escolar. El colegio independiente se conoce en general como un edificio pequeño, por la simple razón de que los estudiantes figuran en número de 100 a 500; en tanto que las universidades del tipo que hemos descrito matriculan frecuentemente de 1,000 a 5,000 alumnos.[4] El observador extranjero se sorprenderá de que los pequeños colegios persistan y se multipliquen en un país tan liberalmente provisto de grandes instituciones, sostenidas muchas de ellas por el estado, y que prestan iguales facilidades para la educación en general. Las razones principales son las siguientes:

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[1] La Asociación de las Universidades Norteamericanas, compuesta de las veintidós instituciones siguientes: Universidad de California, Universidad Léland Stánford, Universidad Yale, Universidad Católica de América, Universidad de Chicago, Universidad de Illinóis, Universidad de Indiana, Universidad de Íowa, Universidad de Kansas, Universidad Johns Hopkins, Universidad Hárvard, Universidad Clark, Universidad de Michigan, Universidad de Minnesota, Universidad de Missouri, Universidad de Nebraska, Universidad Princeton, Universidad Cornell, Universidad Columbia, Universidad de Pennsylvania, Universidad de Virginia y Universidad de Wisconsin, demandaban en la asamblea de 1915 que los grados concedidos por 119 instituciones norteamericanas fueran reconocidos por las universidades extranjeras como de igual valor a los otorgados por las que formaban la asociación. De estas 119 instituciones, 53 eran colegios o escuelas técnicas del tipo que acabamos de describir.

[2] Por ejemplo, el Colegio Albion.

[3] Como el Colegio Óberlin.

[4] Véanse las Sec. VII y VIII.

La primera consiste en que la mayor parte de los colegios norteamericanos se ha fundado bajo alguna denominación religiosa. Naturalmente el colegio recibe especialmente niños de familias que pertenecen a dicha denominación y por ende sirve a su secta aun cuando esté admitida la libre comunicación con cualquiera otra religión. Así tenemos colegios metodistas, presbiterianos, católicos, luteranos y muchos otros más. Todos aquellos que creen que la educación superior debe estar basada en el espíritu religioso, más aún, ligada íntimamente a determinada doctrina religiosa e interpretada según las ideas de aquella doctrina, patrocinan generalmente los colegios que responden a la denominación deseada. Muchas sectas han alentado esta tendencia, fundando colegios donde la comunidad religiosa era suficientemente extensa para proveer a su sostenimiento. No es raro encontrar en la misma ciudad o a pocas millas de distancia en el campo colegios que responden a diversas denominaciones religiosas.

El colegio típico sectario insiste en las ceremonias religiosas y tiende a crear una atmósfera de marcado misticismo. Aparece más o menos extensamente en su programa la instrucción religiosa; el servicio religioso de la secta se oficia diariamente y se requiere la asistencia del alumno, ocupando las asociaciones religiosas lugar prominente en la organización social que llena las horas desocupadas de los estudiantes.

Se ve por lo que antecede que el colegio sectario contribuye de manera muy especial a la educación superior norteamericana. Las universidades nacionales, debido a la naturaleza de su sostenimiento, no afectan secta religiosa alguna; así como las grandes universidades independientes que, cualesquiera que hayan sido los auspicios de su fundación, mal podrían asumir definido rumbo religioso. Los estudiantes extranjeros de sólidas tendencias religiosas pueden tener presente estos datos cuando se trate de seleccionar un centro de educación.

No existe en los Estados Unidos de Norte América, como no existe en otros países, opinión decidida respecto de la influencia de la enseñanza sectaria sobre la educación superior. En las dos últimas décadas la tendencia ha sido indudablemente hacia el divorcio de la religión con la educación superior, tendencia estimulada por el éxito evidente de las universidades nacionales. En consecuencia la afiliación religiosa de muchos colegios que se iniciaron como estrictamente sectarios se ha debilitado en gran manera. Algunos han renunciado a sus denominaciones declarándose francamente instituciones libres. Entre tanto, y como por vía de protesta, otras instituciones afirmaban con renovado vigor su carácter religioso. Ciertas sectas se mostraron también especialmente activas para fundar sus instituciones. En realidad, el éxito de algunos colegios para mantener una vigorosa orientación sectaria depende en gran parte de la localidad en que se hallan situados. Muchas instituciones de esta clase florecen en el oeste central y hacia el sur; la sección nordeste y la del extremo oeste se han mostrado menos hospitalarias hacia el rígido principio de secta en la educación superior.

El colegio se considera cada vez más como una institución local. Aun cuando cubre área mayor que las high-schools, el radio de donde toma sus estudiantes es relativamente limitado y se acorta más de año en año. Esta es la segunda razón para el gran número de colegios independientes. El número de personas que desean adquirir la enseñanza de colegio ha aumentado en cambio enormemente en los últimos tiempos, en proporción a la totalidad de la población.[1] Hay, en consecuencia, demanda creciente por colegios vecinos a los centros de mayor población. Esto ofrece a muchos estudiantes la facilidad de continuar viviendo en familia sin los gastos extraordinarios de la residencia en el colegio durante el curso; mientras los otros necesitan atravesar sólo unas cuantas millas para encontrarse en su casa.[2]

La tercera razón para la persistente vitalidad del colegio independiente es la extraordinaria influencia que ha tenido en los ideales y en la vida de la nación. El alumno graduado en un colegio norteamericano conserva siempre viva la memoria del Alma Mater con un fervor comparado sólo al que dedica a su familia y amigos. Es en todo tiempo su devoto y su campeón. Si ha sido estudiante en un pequeño colegio, atribuye a su influencia y al poder de su enseñanza cualquier éxito que sea capaz de obtener. Este generoso hábito, aunado al hecho de que los colegios independientes han proporcionado a la nación un número sorprendente, casi desproporcionado, de hombres notables en política, en diversas profesiones, y en el comercio, ha contribuído a engrandecer el pequeño colegio a los ojos del público. En muchas residencias se le juzga el centro natural de la sana democracia, de los elevados ideales y de la sólida educación intelectual. Goza, en consecuencia, un prestigio igual al de las mayores universidades; y aparentemente continuará gozándolo por largo tiempo.

CAPÍTULO V.

EDUCACIÓN SUPERIOR PARA LA MUJER.

Todas las facilidades para educación superior y profesional descritas anteriormente son también adaptables para la mujer. Rara vez elige ésta ciertas profesiones que, como la agricultura y la ingeniería, demandan esfuerzo físico; pero en cambio hay muchísimas mujeres que acuden al campo de la jurisprudencia, medicina, medicina dental, pedagogía, y que siguen cursos superiores en artes y ciencias.[1]

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[1] En 1893 la proporción de asistencia a los colegios era de 1 por 827; en 1903, de 1 por 638; y en 1913, de 1 por 321.

[2] La universidad municipal, sostenida por el ayuntamiento en relación con el sistema escolar de la ciudad y gratuita para todos los estudiantes de la localidad, es un ensanche reciente de las instituciones escolares. En Nueva York, Cincinnati y Akron, por ejemplo, florecen instituciones de tal naturaleza.

La educación superior se ofrece de igual manera en instituciones especiales para la mujer o en colegios y universidades para ambos sexos. En el este la educación mixta no goza de gran favor. Los colegios más antiguos y las facultades, en las universidades de este lado de los Estados Unidos, están por lo común exclusivamente dedicados a los hombres; pero se han establecido numerosos colegios para mujeres, que ofrecen cursos para el bachillerato y en algunos casos para los grados de maestro y de doctor. Generalmente, sin embargo, las universidades más antiguas como Hárvard, Yale y la Universidad de Pennsylvania, que excluyen a la mujer de los cursos para estudiantes no graduados, la admiten libremente en las escuelas para graduados. En el oeste central y en todo el occidente la instrucción mixta es la norma de la educación actual.

Más o menos los departamentos de todos los colegios y universidades están abiertos en las mismas condiciones para hombres y mujeres. Las universidades locales especialmente han sido los sostenedores más firmes de esta doctrina y han hecho lo posible para extenderla por todas partes. Se ejerce vigilancia particular respecto del alojamiento y pensión de las mujeres, así como cierta tutela en asuntos sociales; pero en otras materias reina completa libertad entre ambos sexos. El sistema de educación mixta ha obtenido éxito universal y está adoptado en la actualidad por los demás educadores norteamericanos.

"Además del sistema mixto y el sistema de educación separada para las mujeres existe otro método llamado sistema coordinado, que consiste en la asociación de un colegio de hombres y otro de mujeres."[2] Ejemplares de este tipo son el Colegio Bárnard, incorporado al sistema de educación de la Universidad Columbia; el Colegio Rádcliffe, asociado a la Universidad Hárvard; el Colegio Conmemorativo de H. Sofía Néwcomb, en conexión con la Universidad Tulane de Louisiana; y el Colegio de Mujeres, asociado a la Universidad Occidental Reserve. La relación académica de estos colegios con las respectivas universidades a que están asociados difiere en ciertos puntos. Bajo algunos de estos sistemas de asociación la facultad de las universidades corre a cargo de la enseñanza femenina, como sucede en el Rádcliffe; mientras otros, como la Universidad Occidental Reserve, proveen una facultad completamente independiente para el colegio de mujeres.

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[1] Las cifras anotadas a continuación indican cuán ampliamente han aprovechado las mujeres de las facilidades que se les ofrecen para la educación superior. Matrícula total en colegios especiales para la mujer: En 1893, 12,300; en 1903, 16,744; en 1913, 19,142. Matrícula total de mujeres en instituciones mixtas: En 1893, 31,058; en 1903, 26,990; en 1913, 55,561.

[2] Tomado de Ch. V., Tomo I, Rep. de la Com. de Educ., 1903.

CAPÍTULO VI.

COMPARACIÓN ENTRE LAS INSTITUCIONES DE EDUCACIÓN NORTEAMERICANAS Y EXTRANJERAS.

Indudablemente será de gran utilidad para el estudiante extranjero conocer las condiciones de educación en los Estados Unidos de la América del Norte, en las diferencias y similitudes que ofrecen los tipos principales de escuelas norteamericanas con relación a las instituciones europeas y de la América latina. Con tal fin mostramos en el siguiente cuadro comparativo, en columnas paralelas, la edad en que los estudiantes principian y concluyen los diversos cursos.

EDAD DE ASISTENCIA A LAS ESCUELAS.

Alemania.	
Escuelas.	Edad de asistencia.
Volkschule	6-14
Gymnasium	9-18
Realgymnasium	
Oberrealschule	
Universidad:	
Profesiones	21
Filosofía	18-22
Vocaciones técnicas	

Francia.	
Escuelas.	Edad de asistencia.
Escuela primaria	6-14
Liceo o colegio	10-18
Universidad:	
Profesiones	18-22
Filosofía	
Vocaciones técnicas	

Inglaterra.	
Escuelas.	Edad de asistencia.
Escuela elemental	7-14
Escuela secundaria	10-18
Universidad: Ciencias y Artes	18-22

América latina.	
Escuelas.	Edad de asistencia.
Escuela primaria	6-12
Liceo	12-18
Universidad:	
Profesiones	18-22
Filosofía	
Vocaciones técnicas	

Estados Unidos de Norte América.

Escuelas.	Edad de asistencia.
Escuela elemental	6-12
High-school (escuela secundaria)	14-18
Colegio y vocaciones técnicas	18-22
Universidad: Antiguas profesiones y filosofía	20-26

La diferencia más marcada se nota en el tiempo dedicado a la educación secundaria y en la edad en que comienzan los estudios en los países mencionados. Puede decirse, en efecto, que el tiempo señalado para la educación secundaria determina en gran parte el sistema de educación peculiar de cada nación. En Francia y Alemania el sistema de las escuelas primaria y secundaria es completamente independiente: la educación se desarrolla en líneas divergentes. Sólo es posible pasar de la una a la otra en ocasión determinada y nunca después de los doce años. Hasta cierto punto prevalecen las mismas condiciones en Inglaterra, aun cuando se hayan modificado algo últimamente. En todos aquellos países no se consideraba la escuela primaria como lugar preparatorio para pasar a la escuela de segundo grado, sino como una institución de programa diferente, destinada a procurar educación en medida señalada a los niños de familia de obreros o artesanos. La escuela secundaria, de otro lado, estaba dedicada a los niños de padres acomodados que quisieran preparar a sus hijos para alguna profesión o para el servicio civil. La distinción primera y fundamental entre ambos sistemas era una razón de clases.

La concepción de "la educación como escala" define muy bien la importancia que seda a la instrucción en los Estados Unidos. En efecto, las escuelas deben estar organizadas en tal forma que el niño de nacimiento más humilde pueda elevarse y obtener por este medio todas las ventajas que ofrece una educación superior. Sentimientos de otra clase son considerados antidemocráticos. De consiguiente la escuela secundaria está basada en la elemental, como el colegio está basado en la escuela secundaria. Este sistema ha producido dos resultados no del todo afortunados: ha cercenado las atribuciones de la escuela secundaria y ha alargado el período escolar para los estudiantes norteamericanos. Gran parte de la labor realizada en los liceos franceses y los gimnasios alemanes se incluye aquí necesariamente en la escuéla elemental o en los colegios.

Al tratar de la evolución histórica del colegio hemos aludido ya a otra peculiaridad que existe en el plan de educación de los Estados Unidos, en lo que se refiere a ciertos establecimientos de esta clase que combinan de manera especial las escuelas secundarias con las universidades.

No obstante diferencias de pequeña entidad ofrecen un programa semejante las escuelas de los Estados Unidos y las de Europa, y están encaminadas hacia el mismo objeto, impartiendo igual suma de enseñanza. La escuela primaria de los países latinoamericanos, como la escuela elemental de los Estados Unidos, es la institución regular preparatoria para las escuelas secundarias o liceos, diferenciándose en este punto de las instituciones análogas europeas; pero la línea divisoria entre la escuela de primero y segundo grado ocurre más temprano en la América latina, a una edad más apropiada para comenzar la educación secundaria, lo cual reduce naturalmente el programa de estudios de la escuela elemental.

Las naciones europeas y latinoamericanas coinciden en esencia en cuanto a los fines y regulaciones de la educación secundaria. El programa no es exactamente igual en ningún país en todos sus detalles; pero generalmente la educación secundaria abraza el estudio de idiomas antiguos y modernos, matemáticas hasta cálculo diferencial o más adelante; elementos de ciencias naturales, historia, literatura nacional y nociones de lógica y de filosofía. En una palabra, la educación secundaria tiene por objeto ofrecer conocimientos prácticos y de uso general, combinados científicamente para demostrar la relación de las causas con los hechos y los fenómenos. Incluye así mismo enseñanza metódica e independiente en diversos ramos del saber y procura utilizar la percepción moral y estética. La educación secundaria tiene pocas afinidades con lo puramente empírico, sistema que incumbe más bien a la escuela elemental; preparando, en cambio, al alumno para la investigación detallada o filosófica del saber humano, que es el campo que abraza la educación superior. El período de cultura general del individuo termina propiamente con el curso de la escuela secundaria, lo cual está perfectamente reconocido con la adjudicación del grado de bachiller. Los seis, ocho o nueve años de educación secundaria en los países mencionados se consideran suficientes para cumplir este propósito.

Las funciones que llena en Francia, Alemania y en la América latina la escuela secundaria, están repartidas en los Estados Unidos de la América del Norte en dos instituciones: la escuela secundaria y el colegio. Está generalmente admitido que el estudiante que hubiere terminado el curso en la escuela secundaria y llevado durante dos años un curso general en artes o ciencias en cualquier colegio norteamericano puede considerarse en la misma línea que el graduado en liceos franceses o en el Abiturientenzeugnis de los gimnasios alemanes. Las escuelas profesionales que demandan para el ingreso dos años de cursos de colegio, mantienen así aproximadamente el mismo método de admisión que las universidades francesas y alemanas abiertas solamente a los diplomados en los ramos arriba mencionados.

SECCIÓN SEGUNDA.

CAPÍTULO I.

CONDICIONES DE VIDA.

Las universidades principales están situadas en los alrededores o dentro de las ciudades más importantes. Por ejemplo, la Universidad de California, en Bérkeley, ciudad de 49,331 habitantes,[1] está solamente a ocho millas de San Francisco; la Universidad de Minnesota está en Minneapolis, ciudad de 333,472 habitantes;[2] y la Universidad de Wisconsin, en Mádison, ciudad de 25,531 habitantes.[3] Dentro de los límites del distrito metropolitano de cada uno de los grandes centros, como Chicago, Nueva York, Filadelfia, San Luis, Boston, Nueva Orleáns, Báltimore y Wáshington hay varias universidades y colegios. La labor de ciertos departamentos profesionales, particularmente en medicina y ciencia dental, no podría llevarse a cabo sin las facilidades que ofrece una gran ciudad. Por tal razón los departamentos médicos de la Universidad Cornell y la de Illinóis se han establecido en Chicago y Nueva York respectivamente.

De otro lado, casi todos los pequeños colegios e instituciones profesionales independientes se encuentran establecidos en pueblos y ciudades de 1,000 a 20,000 habitantes. En muchos casos los fundadores eligieron deliberadamente pequeñas comunidades para que los estudiantes se encontraran libres de las tentaciones de las grandes ciudades y, en contacto más íntimo con la naturaleza, pudieran saborear el encanto de una vida sencilla y saludable. Las grandes ciudades, como las pequeñas comunidades rurales, tienen cada una sus ventajas peculiares. Los grandes centros de numerosa población son también centros de arte y foros abiertos para el intercambio de ideas. Las colecciones de pintura y escultura, los conciertos, teatros, museos, discursos, las conferencias públicas donde se discuten problemas políticos y económicos, pueden incluirse con justicia entre las formas de educación y propio perfeccionamiento que ofrecen las universidades de las grandes ciudades. Los pueblos o pequeñas ciudades procuran a su vez desarrollo más vigoroso y mayor cohesión de la institución en sí misma. "La vida de colegio," rasgo característico de las instituciones de educación superior norteamericana, florece especialmente en el colegio campesino.

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[1] Cifras de 1913.

[2] Cifras de 1910.

[3] Véase también la Sec. Seg., Cap. III, pág. 52 y siguientes.

GASTOS.

Los gastos del estudiante extranjero en las universidades norteamericanas pueden variar muchísimo por diversas razones. En primer lugar, todas las instituciones de fundación particular cobran una pensión anual por la enseñanza, que rara vez baja de cuarenta dólares y que sube en ocasiones hasta ciento cincuenta o doscientos dólares cada año.[1] El Colegio Cartago, por ejemplo, y el Colegio Bowdoin cobran cuarenta y setenta y cinco dólares respectivamente como pensión anual por la instrucción; la Universidad Columbia cobra ciento ochenta dólares, y la Universidad de Princeton[2] ciento sesenta dólares. La instrucción profesional, especialmente en medicina e ingeniería, es más cara todavía. La pensión anual en la escuela médica de la Universidad de Pennsylvania es doscientos dólares, por ejemplo, mientras los estudiantes del colegio pagan sólo ciento cincuenta. La escuela Case de Ciencia Aplicada cobra ciento veinticinco dólares por año; el Instituto de Tecnología de Massachusetts cobra doscientos cincuenta; y quinientos dólares anuales a los estudiantes de construcción y arquitectura naval.

La mayor parte de las instituciones subvencionadas por los estados, cobran sólo una pequeña pensión a los estudiantes de fuera, recibiendo instrucción gratuita los residentes en el mismo estado; pero cobran generalmente una pensión considerable a los estudiantes en ciertos ramos de estudio profesional, en razón del costoso equipo que requiere la labor en tales departamentos. Como ilustración anotaremos la práctica establecida por la Universidad de Colorado que cobra quince dólares de pensión anual a los estudiantes del colegio y setenta y cinco dólares a los estudiantes de la escuela de medicina. Además de la pensión por la enseñanza, la mayor parte de estas instituciones, ya privadas o subvencionadas por el estado, cobran cierta cantidad por gastos de laboratorio y algunos otros incidentales, que rara vez suman más de veinticinco dólares por año en su totalidad.

Los gastos de subsistencia, de otro lado, varían según la situación de la institución. Generalmente los colegios y universidades establecidos en comunidades rurales o en pequeñas ciudades sostienen edificios para hospedaje y manutención que aseguran a los estudiantes buen alojamiento y alimentación por precio mínimo. Ciertas universidades de la ciudad, como las de Yale y la de Pennsylvania procuran también alojamiento y manutención a sus alumnos. Los aposentos están arreglados en tal forma que dos estudiantes pueden compartir un pequeño departamento de dos o tres piezas, compuesto de un cuarto de estudio y uno o dos dormitorios. Algunos edificios de esta clase, los antiguos especialmente, tienen cuartos independientes que sirven a la vez de estudio y dormitorio y están destinados para un solo ocupante. Cuando la institución no posee edificios de esta clase, como sucede con la Universidad de Míchigan y la de Illinóis, se encuentra gran número de cuartos convenientes en casa de familias respetables. Como regla general los gastos principales de hospedaje, alimentación y lavado son menores en las instituciones del campo que en las de la ciudad. Las posibles diferencias en el precio, que no siempre dependen de la importancia de la comunidad, pueden apreciarse por la cantidad de cuatro dólares cincuenta centavos semanales, fijada como cuota mínima por la Universidad de Minnesota y la de doce dólares semanales, máximum marcado por la Universidad Cornell. Los gastos extraordinarios de la vida de ciudad, incluyendo diversiones, deben tomarse en cuenta también naturalmente.[1] Variarán según las inclinaciones y costumbres de cada individuo; pero el estudiante más ascético gastará indudablemente algo más en la ciudad que en una comunidad rural.

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[1] Todos los precios anotados en este boletín están considerados en oro americano.—N. de la T.

[2] Para informes referentes al costo de la instrucción en otras instituciones véase la sección sexta.

EXCURSIÓN DE VACACIONES.

El estudiante extranjero que piensa permanecer tres o cuatro años en los Estados Unidos de Norte América para sus estudios universitarios debe contar en su presupuesto con una partida extraordinaria para las vacaciones. Los colegios y universidades norteamericanas funcionan por término medio ocho meses durante el año. El año universitario comienza generalmente a mediados de septiembre y termina a mediados de junio.[2] En casi todas las instituciones de esta clase está dividido en dos semestres, contándose la línea divisoria alrededor del primero de febrero[3] y dedicándose un mes más o menos a vacaciones cortas de uno a catorce días de duración, repartidas convenientemente en todo el año académico. El precio calculado por las diferentes instituciones como alquiler de los aposentos se cuenta por los nueve meses del año académico, incluyendo la posesión del cuarto durante las vacaciones cortas; pero en general no se permite a los estudiantes el uso de estos aposentos durante la temporada de verano.

En tales condiciones es muy conveniente para el estudiante extranjero que pueda permitirse este gasto extraordinario, ocupar el tiempo de vacaciones en una excursión por los Estados Unidos. Es éste un país muy extenso; encierra gran diversidad de razas concentradas muchas de ellas en área limitada; su clima, sus costumbres y las condiciones de vida varían a tal punto que ningún distrito o comunidad puede realmente considerarse típica. Observar el pueblo y las costumbres de una nación extraña no sería la menor de las ventajas que obtuviera el estudiante dedicado aquí a labor universitaria. Debe procurar, al contrario, ensanchar su campo de investigación tan ampliamente como le sea posible. El viaje por ferrocarril puede calcularse a razón de 2½ a 3 centavos por milla, agregándose más o menos medio centavo por asiento particular en los carros Pullman. El camarote en el carro dormitorio se paga aproximadamente un centavo extra por milla. Según los lugares, se puede conseguir buen alojamiento y pensión desde $2.50 adelante. Para larga permanencia es fácil obtener en las ciudades un buen cuarto con pensión por $7.00 u $8.00 semanales; y en el campo se consigue por menos dinero satisfactorio alojamiento y alimentación.

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[1] Para calcular el gasto minimo anual de las instituciones descritas en este boletin, véase el final de cada descripción en la Sección VI. Este cálculo no incluye extraordinarios.

[2] Las instituciones de California son la excepción de esta regla, extendiéndose el año académico desde mediados de agosto hasta mediados de mayo.

[3] Es posible ahora ingresar a casi todas las universidades importantes y a la mayor parte de los colegios al comienzo de cualquier semestre. Varias instituciones tienen dos graduaciones, una en junio y otra en febrero; y las clases, trabajos de laboratorio y conferencias se arreglan actualmente sobre bases semestrales.

EL ESTUDIANTE COMO AYUDA PARA SÍ MISMO Y PARA LOS DEMÁS.

Casi todas las instituciones privadas de cierta importancia y algunas instituciones de los estados, tienen un fondo de reserva particular para atender a los estudiantes dignos y necesitados. La forma más común de protección a los estudiantes es la llamada "scholarship" (prebenda o beca), que consiste en un estipendio anual bastante elevado para cubrir la pensión de enseñanza y a menudo algo mayor, que se otorga a un alumno de reconocida habilidad y aptitudes que necesite de esta ayuda. Algunas de estas prebendas se conceden como premio de alto merecimiento escolar sin tener en cuenta la situación financiera del alumno; en tanto que otras, como dijimos antes, se otorgan especialmente a los estudiantes de talento que no podrían continuar su educación en otra forma.

Ciertas instituciones tienen así mismo fondos de préstamo que se proporcionan a los estudiantes con las seguridades debidas.

Muchas universidades han establecido también prebendas que proveen un fondo de ciento cincuenta a quinientos y seisciento dólares anuales en beneficio de los estudiantes graduados o profesionales de habilidad y expectativas extraordinarias. Algunos de estos donativos incluyen para el beneficiado la obligación de enseñar en las escuelas para estudiantes no graduados, de una a seis horas semanales.[1] Algunas universidades mantienen además un fondo de reserva para viajes, que asciende muchas veces hasta $1,500 anuales. Estos fondos se otorgan generalmente como prebenda al estudiante de cursos avanzados cuyas investigaciones pueden tomar gran incremento visitando las comarcas extranjeras.

Nos permitimos aconsejar a los extranjeros que soliciten los catálogos de cualquier colegio o universidad hacia el cual se sientan atraidos. Dichos catálogos o una circular informativa se envían gratuitamente a solicitud, y contienen detalles completos sobre becas, prebendas, cursos, equipo, y personal de profesores.

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[1] Por ejemplo, la beca para instrucción en la Universidad Hárvard, cuyos beneficiados reciben $500 en cambio de dedicar la mitad de su tiempo a la enseñanza; y la beca Hárrison de los avanzados en la Universidad de Pennsylvania, cuyos concesionarios reciben $500 en cambio de un curso de conferencias.

Un gran porcentaje de estudiantes norteamericanos atiende a su propia subsistencia durante todo el período o parte de los cursos de colegio o profesionales. En las vacaciones de verano, en las noches y en las horas libres de las clases, muchos jóvenes, hombres y mujeres, desempeñan diversas ocupaciones. Entre las más comunes pueden contarse las siguientes: el cuidado de los caloríferos en casas particulares; el servicio de portero o bedel en colegios y universidades; el servicio de camarero en los clubs y refectorios del colegio, el desempeño de alguna labor de oficina para los altos empleados de la institución; la enseñanza privada; y la venta de ciertos artículos en comisión. Muchos estudiantes han adquirido práctica en el comercio de esta manera y han podido sostenerse a sí mismos durante la temporada de estudios.

La mayor parte de las instituciones de importancia y algunos de los colegios pequeños sostienen agencias de empleo para los estudiantes. El objeto de estas oficinas es procurar ocupación a los estudiantes que deseen trabajar, poniéndoles en contacto con las necesidades locales.

Las universidades y colegios de los Estados Unidos no consideran degradante para los alumnos desempeñar estas ocupaciones o cualesquiera otras en que puedan ganarse la vida honradamente. Esta circunstancia es muy digna de notarse porque en otros países se marca actitud muy diferente hacia el estudiante obligado a sostenerse por sí mismo en el colegio, al que acepta una beca o recibe préstamos o subsidios en cualquier forma. El alumno que trabaja para sufragar los gastos de su educación no está por ello deprimido socialmente en la América del Norte. Es tan apto para cualquier honor como el hijo de familia más acomodada. En realidad, el hecho de que un jóven simpático e inteligente atienda la mesa, por ejemplo, con el fin de adquirir educación, le hace más acreedor a la estimación de sus maestros y compañeros.

Muchos estudiantes extranjeros han aprovechado así de las facilidades ofrecidas para su subsistencia, reuniendo el dinero necesario para una larga y costosa educación universitaria. Ninguna diferencia se marca en favor del alumno del país por el personal de las universidades o por las agencias de empleos. Sin embargo, es prudente que el estudiante extranjero que piensa seguir sus estudios en los Estados Unidos tenga dinero suficiente para responder a los gastos del primer año. Antes de que pueda contar con un empleo bien remunerado necesita conocer las costumbres del país y hacerse conocer a su vez por los empleados de la institución a que pertenece.

CAPÍTULO II.

VIDA ESCOLAR.

Los educadores norteamericanos están conformes en la opinión de que las relaciones del estudiante con sus compañeros y las diversas ocupaciones que llenan sus horas de libertad son factores de educación tan importantes por lo menos como la labor directa de la misma institución. Este hecho es más notable aún en el colegio y en los departamentos del mismo estilo dentro de las universidades. Los alumnos de las escuelas profesionales y para graduados, absorbidos completamente en prepararse para la práctica de sus varias profesiones, tienen menos tiempo sin duda para cultivar otros intereses. Alentado por las autoridades dirigentes se ha desarrollado en la mayor parte de los colegios y universidades norteamericanas cierto espíritu escolástico que puede calificarse como esencialmente nacional. Existe, a no dudarlo, gran similitud entre los ideales e intereses de los estudiantes del mundo entero, que se manifiesta generalmente en aspiraciones análogas; pero la "vida escolar" norteamericana, como la llaman, exhibe muchos rasgos y manera de ser enteramente distintos de la de los estudiantes europeos y latinoamericanos. Es única en su especie y requiere breve descripción. Probablemente el observador extranjero se sentirá sorprendido por lo intenso y complejo de la vida de esta institución. La labor de las clases y del laboratorio parece ser únicamente el foco de numerosas ocupaciones que se persiguen todas con apasionada intensidad.

JUEGOS ATLÉTICOS.

Entre las principales ocupaciones fuera de programa pueden contarse los juegos atléticos, que ocupan lugar preferente no sólo en las aficiones de los alumnos de colegios y universidades sino en las de todo el pueblo norteamericano. El deporte atlético ha adquirido últimamente su mayor desenvolvimiento, habiéndose iniciado a la par que la gloria de hombres que existen todavía. Hace muy poco más de una generación que los norteamericanos dejaron de encontrar ancho campo para la actividad física en terrenos que necesitaran cultivarse, bosques que hubieran de talarse o explorarse, y fuerzas naturales que hubieran de doblegarse. La rápida transformación urbana de los Estados Unidos estimuló el desarrollo de los juegos atléticos. La juventud de las ciudades reemplaza ahora con enérgicos deportes la labor tenaz y los esfuerzos de sus padres y abuelos, obreros de la colonización. El público urbano es copartícipe del cambio y se muestra ruidosamente entusiasta por las exhibiciones atléticas. Tanto la sociedad escolar como todo el país se encuentran dispuestos a convertir en héroe al estudiante que obtenga mayores triunfos en el atletismo. Son acontecimientos sociales de alta significación en la vida norteamericana, que justifican en parte la gran importancia que concede el estudiante a los juegos atléticos y el interés predominante que despiertan en casi todas las comunidades escolares.

Más o menos todos los colegios y universidades sostienen cuatro grupos de juegos atléticos en competencia con los de las demás instituciones: baseball, football, basketball y track. El track en el atletismo incluye la carrera, el salto, el arrojar pesos, etc., etc. Además, casi todas las instituciones situadas cerca del mar o de los ríos forman tripulaciones para bogar en las regatas. Muchas otras clases de juegos atléticos, como el hockey, tennis, la esgrima, etc., se cultivan en ciertas universidades, pero el interés general reside especialmente en los primeros cuatro. El baseball en la primavera, y el football en el otoño, atraen particularmente a los norteamericanos de todas clases y edades.

El personal de los juegos atléticos en colegios y universidades se prepara con gran cuidado y a menudo con gran costo. Es costumbre emplear con este objeto un maestro especial llamado "coach" o instructor para cada uno de los ramos principales de este deporte. Las instituciones más ricas e importantes construyen costosos campos para gimnasia y práctica de estos ejercicios y tienen a menudo un lugar destinado para juegos públicos. Ser nombrado para representar la institución en una de sus importantes exhibiciones atléticas constituye el honor más preciado para el estudiante. Por muchos años le imprime esta distinción un sello de estimación particular de parte de los alumnos y del público en general, recibiendo muestras especiales de deferencia dentro y fuera de los muros de la institución. Pero el prestigio del vencedor en los juegos atléticos es todavía más brillante. Los desafíos de football y baseball entre las escuelas tienen lugar en presencia de multitud enorme y entusiasta, que paga grandes sumas por el privilegio de asistir al espectáculo. Realmente, un desafío de football entre Hárvard y Yale, por ejemplo, reviste los caracteres de un acontecimiento de interés nacional. El último, en 1914, tuvo lugar ante una asamblea de sesenta y ocho mil personas en un anfiteatro construído especialmente para estos concursos con un gasto de $600,000 aproximadamente. Las entradas ascendieron a $136,000. Concurrencia algo menor se reúne para los desafíos de otras universidades. El conspicuo atleta vencedor en tales ocasiones adquiere una popularidad que, aunque de corta duración, puede sólo compararse con la de los favoritos de la escena.

Todas estas influencias se combinan naturalmente para hacer que todo joven bien constituído aspire a distinguirse en los juegos atléticos. Más aún; la afición predominante por esta clase de ejercicios ha creado un ideal de conformación física que prevalece en colegios y universidades e influye en las ambiciones de aquellos que se encuentran incapaces de adquirir fama en la arena. Gozar de excelentes condiciones físicas y participar de alguna manera en aquellos ejercicios ha llegado a ser el fin normal a que tienden todos los estudiantes.

Cuanto se ha dicho con respecto del deporte atlético para los hombres existe también con ligeras modificaciones en los colegios de mujeres. Los ejercicios atléticos de los estudiantes del sexo femenino requieren menos esfuerzo y publicidad, pero el ideal de este deporte triunfa de igual modo entre las mujeres que entre los hombres.

La preponderancia del interés por los juegos atléticos entre los estudiantes ha dado por resultado la introducción de un método de ejercicios físicos en el programa de los colegios. Muchas instituciones progresistas requieren ahora que los candidatos para el grado de bachiller se sometan a un examen periódico por el médico del colegio y sigan un curso de ejercicios físicos bajo la dirección de un instructor competente. La conservación de la salud y la adquisición de un perfecto desarrollo físico son las bases de una eficaz educación intelectual.

CLUBS Y ASOCIACIONES.

Después de los ejercicios atléticos, los factores más influyentes y de importancia capital en la vida universitaria son los clubs y asociaciones de fraternidad. Si bien los juegos atléticos actúan como fuerza democratizadora nivelando al rico y al pobre, al hijo de buena familia y al de obscuro nacimiento, los clubs y sociedades tienden a dividir en secciones el cuerpo estudiantil sobre la base de aficiones similares, de investigaciones análogas o de compatibilidad social. Representan las naturales adherencias de gran número de personas en pequeños grupos de afinidades.

Las asociaciones de los colegios norteamericanos, lo mismo que la vida escolar, de la cual son vástagos y expresión, no tienen paralelo exacto en ningún otro país. El cuerpo de estudiantes en las universidades alemanas se les asemeja en ciertos rasgos, siendo en conjunto completamente diferente. La genuina asociación fraternal de los colegios de los Estados Unidos es una orden secreta con número de socios estrictamente limitado, que usan una frase griega como lema y adoptan ciertos ritos misteriosos de iniciación. La sociedad se distingue por las iniciales de su lema, o por las que se hace pasar como tales ante el público profano; por ejemplo, Psi Upsilon, Delta Kappa Epsilon, Phi Delta Theta, Sigma Chi, y otras por este estilo.

Muchas de estas asociaciones son nacionales o por lo menos sirven de lazo de unión entre las diversas instituciones, estableciendo sucursales o ramas de la asociación por todo el país. Las sociedades llamadas nacionales consisten generalmente en un cuerpo central administrativo compuesto ordinariamente de los graduados de mayor edad, cuyo deber es coordinar las energías y mantener muy alto el estandarte de la fraternidad. Los grupos diseminados de la asociación constan ordinariamente de 15 a 30 miembros. En casi todas las instituciones la asociación tiene su club particular que varía de importancia, amplitud y comodidades según las circunstancias. Algunos son edificios modestos que tienen solamente piezas de reunión, mientras otros poseen grandes refectorios, salones y dormitorios. Pueden vivir allí en familia todos o casi todos los miembros de la sociedad. En tales condiciones es natural suponer que la asociación ejerce decisiva influencia en el carácter de los jóvenes. En general esta influencia es favorable. Casi todas estas sociedades, como la orden de la caballería de la cual se originó probablemente la masonería, tienen por norma dignos y elevados ideales. Los miembros más respetables asumen la responsabilidad de mantener muy alto el estandarte escolar y la buena reputación de la sociedad, a cuyo fin se encaminan generalmente en cooperación con la facultad.

Algunas de estas asociaciones o de los grupos particulares han caído a veces en costumbres viciosas o de lujo excesivo, en cuyo caso se han hecho verdaderamente peligrosas para los jóvenes que ingresaban en ellas. Han sido raras excepciones, sin embargo. La principal objeción contra tales agrupaciones es el efecto disolvente que su estrecha organización y rivalidades exteriores puede ejercer sobre la solidaridad general de la vida universitaria; pero esta objeción no ha sido suficiente para detener su desarrollo.

Ciertas órdenes secretas locales, semejantes en sus rasgos esenciales a las asociaciones que acabamos de describir, pero sin afiliación con otras sociedades, son también comunes a algunas instituciones de educación. En muchas de las universidades principales, sin embargo, son raras o no existen en absoluto estas asociaciones secretas, locales o nacionales. En Prínceton, por ejemplo, están prohibidas las sociedades secretas; y en Hárvard el desarrollo vigoroso de diversos tipos de organizaciones sociales ha evitado que las sociedades secretas prosperen y adquieran mayor importancia. En estas universidades y en algunas otras, donde prevalecen condiciones semejantes, clubs sociales ocupan el lugar de las hermandades, con reglamento y fines análogos a los que distinguen en todas partes a esta clase de instituciones.

Como regla general, tanto las asociaciones secretas como otras sociedades reciben cordialmente al extranjero de rango social semejante. Sin embargo, revestirá especial interés para el estudiante extranjero la relación con los clubs cosmopolitas que existen en casi todas las universidades y que están ahora enlazados por una organización nacional. Estas instituciones ofrecen ancho campo social a los ciudadanos de todos los países representados en el cuerpo escolar de la universidad.

Además de los clubs sociales existen en casi todos los colegios y universidades otros organizados con algún propósito especial, como clubs dramáticos, musicales o de controversia; por ejemplo, el Cercle Français, el Deutscher Verein, etc. Hay también asociaciones técnicas y profesionales, como clubs de ingeniería, química, jurisprudencia, a los cuales pertenecen los estudiantes de las escuelas profesionales.

Las organizaciones musicales de la mayor parte de los colegios y universidades son de un lado clubs sociales para cultivar un arte, y del otro, empresas de especulación. Todos estos coros universitarios, estos alegres clubs de canto, mandolinas y orquesta, viajan durante el período de vacaciones y siempre que lo permite la labor escolar, dando públicos conciertos que son a menudo fuente de ingresos considerables para los miembros de la sociedad.

ORGANIZACIÓN RELIGIOSA.

En las instituciones norteamericanas de educación superior el espíritu religioso de la comunidad escolar es asunto que preocupa hondamente a la facultad y a los estudiantes de mayor edad y representación. El personal directivo de los colegios que figuran bajo determinada denominación religiosa toma a su cargo por lo general, de manera más o menos franca, la dirección de las ideas y prácticas religiosas de los estudiantes, de acuerdo con las doctrinas y el ritual de la secta a que el colegio pertenece. Las universidades locales o de los estados, en cambio, no afectan denominación sectaria alguna y sus profesores nunca intervienen en los asuntos religiosos de los alumnos. Las universidades mayores independientes, aun cuando hayan sido fundadas por comunidades religiosas, se han liberado también en su mayor parte de restricciones de secta. El culto religioso que se oficia diariamente en la capilla de casi todas las universidades norteamericanas, ya subvencionadas por los estados o independientes, está exento de toda obligación. La asistencia es ahora completamente voluntaria.

El espíritu religioso de los estudiantes se estimula por medio de organizaciones religiosas de las cuales ellos mismos son los responsables. La más influyente y extensa de estas instituciones es la Asociación Cristiana de Jóvenes, que tiene ramificaciones en casi todas las universidades y colegios protestantes sin especial denominación sectaria. En los céntros de educación independientes se establecen también a menudo ramificaciones de la Asociación Católica de Jóvenes, la Sociedad Colegiata Menorah, los Hermanos de San Andrés y otras organizaciones religiosas cuyos miembros se reducen a los miembros de determinada secta.

DEMOCRACIA UNIVERSITARIA.

Indudablemente uno de los rasgos más característicos del colegio norteamericano o de las comunidades universitarias en los Estados

Unidos, es la democracia. Reina en los colegios un espíritu de cordial compañerismo tanto en las diversiones como en la labor. No existen barreras entre grupos o individuos por causa de dinero o relaciones de sociedad. El estudiante se sostiene o cae por la sola fuerza de su personalidad. Hay ciertamente agrupaciones representadas por los clubs y sociedades que acabamos de mencionar, pero que se forman dentro del colegio mismo sin tener en cuenta las relaciones sociales del exterior. La más influyente y exclusiva de las asociaciones de los colegios incluye por igual entre sus miembros a los hijos de familias pobres o ricas y de cualquier rango social. En realidad el típico colegio norteamericano hace un culto de la democracia y, saturado del idealismo de la juventud, forma un grupo más homogéneo que cualquiera otra institución, hallándose en consecuencia en situación de practicar sin esfuerzo la verdadera religión democrática.

Generalmente existen las mismas relaciones sencillas entre estudiantes y profesores que entre alumno y alumno. Muy pocos profesores asumen ahora humos de superioridad al tratar con los estudiantes, ni exigen especial deferencia por razón de su posición. El profesor moderno de las universidades se considera el camarada del alumno a quien enseña, algo más viejo y experimentado, pero en igual nivel. Las relaciones entre profesores y estudiantes son, por consiguiente, semejantes a las que existirían en cualquier parte entre hombres más viejos y más jóvenes. Esta manera de ser contribuye a la mejor inteligencia mutua, a la completa armonía de aspiraciones en la comunidad escolar, en mucha mayor escala de lo que en otro tiempo era posible obtener; y ha reducido también al mínimum la acción represiva de la facultad.

EL ESTUDIANTE EXTRANJERO EN LAS UNIVERSIDADES NORTEAMERICANAS.

Es esencial para el estudiante extranjero que intenta seguir cursos en los Estados Unidos de Norte América hablar el inglés con facilidad. Necesita por lo menos encontrarse capaz de leer en este idioma y comprender las conferencias que se dictan en las clases. Si no está en posesión del inglés a su llegada a los Estados Unidos, le sería más conveniente dedicar los tres o cuatro primeros meses a este estudio [1] antes de matricularse en la universidad para cursos generales o profesionales.

Una vez que haya dominado el idioma lo suficientemente para sus labores de estudiante y para tomar parte activa en el movimiento social de la comunidad universitaria, el extranjero se encontrará cordialmente aceptado como miembro de la institución.[2] A él corresponde entonces únicamente definir el puesto que ha de ocupar. Si es hábil, simpático y sabe adaptarse a la vida universitaria, no sufrirá molestia alguna en sus relaciones con los norteamericanos recibiendo, por el contrario, la bienvenida más franca y cordial.

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[1] Véase pág. 30, Escuelas de Verano.

[2] Hay algunas excepciones de esta regla. En los estados del sur, los negros asisten exclusivamente a las escuelas fundadas para su raza.

CAPÍTULO III.

CENTROS DE EDUCACIÓN SUPERIOR, DISTANCIA DE LOS PUERTOS DE ENTRADA Y COSTO DE LA TRAVESÍA.

En uno de los capítulos precedentes se ha hecho mención de las ventajas que pueden encontrarse además del curso académico de las universidades en las grandes ciudades de los Estados Unidos. Estas ciudades son también el centro de muchas instituciones de educación superior y puede notarse gran espíritu de reciprocidad entre las diversas instituciones. De consiguiente, aparte de las ventajas de cultura general, ofrecen las grandes ciudades facilidades diversas como centros de enseñanza profesional. Mencionamos en capítulos subsiguientes los principales centros metropolitanos y la distancia que les separa de los puertos principales de entrada, con la relación de los colegios y escuelas profesionales que encierran. Como se ha hecho notar en el capítulo segundo, el costo del viaje por ferrocarril es de 2½ centavos por milla aproximadamente, aunque en determinadas comarcas la proporción asciende a tres centavos. Puede calcularse medio centavo adicional por milla para la comodidad del Pullman.

CENTROS DE EDUCACIÓN SUPERIOR EN NUEVA YORK.

La ciudad de Nueva York (5,198,888 hab.) es el centro de las siguientes instituciones de educación:[1]

La Universidad Columbia,[2] que comprende:
  - Colegio Columbia, artes y ciencias (hom.).
  - Colegio Bárnard, artes y ciencias (muj.).
  - Escuela de Jurisprudencia (hom.).
  - Colegio de Médicos y Cirujanos (hom.).
  - Escuela de Minas, Ingeniería y Química (hom.).
  - Facultades para Graduados: Filosofía, Ciencias Políticas, y Pura Ciencia (mix.).
  - Facultad de Bellas Artes: Arquitectura, Música y Dibujo (mix.).
  - Colegio de Farmacia (mix.).
  - Escuela de Periodismo (mix.).
  - Colegio de Pedagogía (mix.), que comprende:
    - Escuela de Educación.
    - Escuela de Artes Prácticas.

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[1] Traducimos en esta sección los títulos de las instituciones de educación, dejándolos en inglés en la Sec. IV para el caso de que alguna persona necesitara dirigirse a cualquier a de ellas por escrito.—(N. de la T.)

[2] Las instituciones que no tienen definida clasificación religiosa en este boletín, dejan libertad completa en tal materia.—(N. de la T.)

El Colegio de la Ciudad de Nueva York, artes y ciencias, bajo la dirección del ayuntamiento (hom.):
La Universidad Fordham (cat., hom.), que comprende:
  Colegio de San Joan, artes y ciencias.
  Escuela de Jurisprudencia.
  Escuela de Medicina.
  Escuela de Farmacia.
El Colegio Húnter de la Ciudad de Nueva York, artes liberales, bajo la dirección del ayuntamiento (muj.).
El Colegio Manhattan, artes y ciencias (cat., hom.).
La Universidad de Nueva York (mix.) comprende:
  Colegio de Artes y Pura Ciencia.
  Escuela de Ciencia Aplicada.
  Colegio de la Plaza Wáshington (ofrece en las tardes y en las noches cursos equivalentes a los de los departamentos colegiados en las universidades.)
  Escuela para Graduados.
  Escuela de Jurisprudencia.
  Universidad y Colegio Médico del Hospital de Bellevue.
  Escuela de Comercio, Contabilidad y Finanzas.
  Colegio de Veterinaria New York-American.
  Escuela de Pedagogía.
La Escuela de Maestros para enseñanza de la Biblia (prot.).
El Seminario Teológico General de la Iglesia Protestante Episcopal.
El Seminario Teológico Judío.
El Seminario Teológico Union (prot.).
La Escuela de Jurisprudencia de Nueva York.
El Colegio Médico de la Universidad Cornell.
El Colegio Médico Homeopático y Hospital de Flores de Nueva York.
El Colegio Médico y Hospital de Mujeres de Nueva York.
El Colegio de Cirugía Oral y Dental de Nueva York.
El Colegio Dental de Nueva York.

Nueva York es el puerto principal de entrada para todos los viajeros de Europa y de algunos lugares de Centro y Sud América y las Indias Occidentales. Se encuentra a 3,183 millas de distancia de San Francisco y a 1,344 de Nueva Orleáns.

CHICAGO, ILLINÓIS.

Chicago (2,344,018 hab.) es el centro de las siguientes instituciones de educación:

El Instituto de Tecnología Armour, para estudiantes no graduados y graduados (hom.).
El Instituto Lewis, artes liberales y prácticas (mix.).
La Universidad Loyola (cat., hom.) comprende:
  Colegio de Artes y Ciencias.
  Colegio Lincoln de Jurisprudencia.
  Colegio Médico Bénnett.
  Colegio de Farmacia de los Estados del Centro.
  Escuela de Sociología.
  Departamento de Ingeniería.
El Colegio San Estanislao, artes y ciencias (cat., hom.).

La Universidad de Chicago (mix.) comprende:
  - Escuelas y Colegios de Artes, Literatura y Ciencias.
  - Escuelas para Graduados:
    - Escuela de Artes y Literatura.
    - Escuela Ogden de Ciencia.
  - Colegio de la Universidad (ofrece en las tardes, las noches y los sábados cursos equivalentes a los de los colegios regulares).
  - Escuela de Teología (bau.).
  - Escuela de Derecho.
  - Colegio Médico Rush.
  - Escuela de Pedagogía.
  - Colegio de Comercio y Administración:
    - Colegio de Ciencias Religiosas y Sociales.

La Universidad del Noroeste (Evanston, sub. de Chicago) (met. episc., mix.) comprende:
  - Colegio de Artes Liberales.
  - Escuela para Graduados.
  - Colegio de Ingeniería.
  - Escuela de Medicina.
  - Escuela de Farmacia.
  - Escuela Union de Derecho.
  - Escuela Dental.
  - Escuela de Comercio.
  - Escuela de Música.
  - Escuela de Oratoria.
  - Instituto Biblico Gárrett (met. episc.).
  - Seminario Teológico Noruego-Danes (met. episc.).
  - Seminario Teológico Metodista Episcopal Sueco.

La Escuela Bíblica Bethania (Hnos. Crist.).
El Seminario Teológico de Chicago (cong.).
El Seminario Teológico Luterano Evangelista (en Maywood).
El Seminario Teológico McCórmick (presb.).
El Seminario Teológico del Oeste (prot. episc.).
La Escuela de Jurisprudencia de Chicago.
La Escuela de Derecho Chicago-Kent.
El Colegio Hámilton de Jurisprudencia.
El Colegio de Jurisprudencia Illinóis de la Universidad DePaul.
La Escuela Illinóis de Derecho y la Escuela Nocturna de Derecho de la Universidad DePaul.
La Escuela de Jurisprudencia Juan Márshall.
El Colegio Chicago de Medicina y Cirugía.
El Colegio de Medicina de la Universidad de Illinóis.
El Colegio Médico Háhnemann.
El Colegio Médico Jénner.
El Colegio Chicago de Cirugía Dental de la Universidad Valparaíso.
El Colegio Dental de la Universidad de Illinóis.
La Escuela de Farmacia de la Universidad de Illinóis.
El Colegio Chicago de Veterinaria.
El Colegio McKíllip de Veterinaria.

Chicago está a 960 millas de distancia de Nueva York, a 2,280 de San Francisco y a 930 millas de Nueva Orleáns.

FILADELFIA, PENNSYLVANIA.

Los siguientes colegios y universidades se encuentran en Filadelfia (1,631,956 hab.):

El Colegio Dropsie, escuela hebrea para estudiantes graduados (jud., mix.).
El Colegio La Salle (cat., hom.) comprende:
    Departamento de Artes.
    Departamento de Ingeniería Civil.
La Universidad del Templo (mix.):
    Colegio de Ciencias y Artes Liberales.
    Facultad de Teología.
    Escuela de Derecho.
    Facultad de Medicina.
    Colegio de Pedagogía.
    Departamento de Farmacia.
    Colegio Dental de Filadelfia.
    Departamento de Comercio, Contabilidad y Finanzas.
    Colegio de Música.
    Escuela de Enfermeras.
La Universidad de Pennsylvania (mix.):
    El Colegio, que comprende:
        Escuela de Artes.
        Escuela Científica Towne.
    Escuela Wharton de Comercio y Finanzas.
    Escuela para Graduados.
    Escuela de Jurisprudencia.
    Escuela de Medicina.
    Escuela Dental.
    Escuela de Medicina Veterinaria.
El Colegio Bryn Mawr (en Bryn Mawr, sub. de Filadelfia), artes liberales (muj.):
    Departamentos para estudiantes no graduados y graduados.
El Colegio Háverford (en Háverford, sub. de Filadelfia), artes y ciencias (cuáquero hom.).
El Colegio Swarthmore (en Swarthmore, sub. de Filadelfia), artes liberales (mix.).
El Seminario Teológico Luterano (en Mount Airy).
La Escuela de Teología de la Iglesia Protestante Episcopal.
El Seminario de San Vicente (cat.).
El Colegio Médico Jefferson.
El Colegio Médico-quirúrgico.
El Colegio Médico de Mujeres de Pennsylvania.
El Departamento Dental del Colegio Médico-quirúrgico.
El Colegio Dental de Filadelfia.
El Departamento de Farmacia del Colegio Médico-quirúrgico.
El Colegio de Farmacia de Filadelfia.

Filadelfia se encuentra a 90 millas de distancia de Nueva York, a 3,098 de San Francisco y a 1,254 millas de Nueva Orleáns.

SAN LUIS, MISSOURI.

San Luis (723,347 hab.) es el centro de las siguientes instituciones de educación:

El Colegio de los Hermanos Cristianos, artes y ciencias (cat., hom.).
La Universidad Forest Park (muj.), comprende:
  Colegio de Artes Liberales.
  Colegio de Música.
La Universidad de San Luis (cat., hom.):
  Colegio de Artes y Ciencias.
  Escuelas de Teología.
  Escuela de Filosofía y Ciencias.
  Escuela de Medicina.
  Colegio Dental de San Luis.
  Instituto de Derecho.
  Escuela de Comercio y Finanzas.
La Universidad Wáshington (mix.) que comprende:
  Departamento de Artes y Ciencias:
    El Colegio.
    Escuela de Ingeniería.
    Escuela de Arquitectura.
  Escuela de Botánica Enrique Shaw.
  Escuela de Jurisprudencia de San Luis.
  Escuela de Medicina.
  Escuela Dental.
  Escuela de Bellas Artes de San Luis.
  Escuela de Economía Social.
El Seminario Teológico Concordia (lut. evang.).
El Colegio Evangelista Alemán de Missouri.
El Seminario Teológico Kénrick (cat. rom.).
El Colegio de Jurisprudencia Benton.
El Colegio de la Ciudad de Leyes y Finanzas.
El Colegio Médico Americano.
El Colegio San Luis de Médicos y Cirujanos.
El Colegio Dental Barnes de la Universidad Nacional de Artes y Ciencias.
La Escuela de Farmacia de la Universidad Nacional de Artes y Ciencias.

San Luis está a 1,127 millas de distancia de Nueva York, a 2,294 de San Francisco y a 717 millas de Nueva Orleáns.

BOSTON, MASSACHUSETTS.

Boston (722,465 hab.) es el centro de las siguientes instituciones de educación:

El Colegio de Boston (Chestnut Hill, sub. de Boston), artes liberales, (cat., hom.).
La Universidad de Boston (met. episc., mix.) comprende:
  Colegio de Artes Liberales.
  Colegio de Administración Comercial.
  Escuela de Teología (met. episc.).
  Escuela de Derecho.
  Escuela de Medicina (hom.)
  Escuela para Graduados.

La Universidad Hárvard (en Cambridge, sub. de Boston, hom.):
  Colegio Hárvard, artes y ciencias.
  Escuela de Artes y Ciencias para Graduados.
  Escuela de Ciencia Aplicada para Graduados.
  Escuela de Ingeniería.
  Escuela de Minas.
  Escuela de Arquitectura.
  Escuela de Arquitectura en Perspectiva.
  Escuela de Selvicultura.
  Escuela de Biología Aplicada.
  Escuela de Administración Comercial para Graduados.
  Escuela de Teología.
  Escuela de Derecho.
  Escuela de Medicina.
  Escuela Dental.
  Escuela de Medicina para Graduados.
El Colegio Rádcliffe (afiliado a la Universidad Hárvard en Cambridge), artes y ciencias. Departamentos para estudiantes no graduados y graduados (muj.).
El Instituto Massachusetts de Tecnología (mix.), comprende:
  Departamentos para alumnos no graduados y graduados.
  Escuela para Inspectores de Salubridad.
El Colegio Simmons, cursos científicos (muj.).
El Colegio Tufts (en Medford, mix.):
  Escuela de Artes Liberales.
  Escuela de Ingeniería.
  Escuela de Medicina.
  Escuela para Graduados.
  Escuela Dental.
  Escuela Teológica Crane (univ.).
  Colegio Jackson para Mujeres.
El Colegio de Wéllesley (en Wéllesley, sub. de Boston), artes liberales (muj.).
El Seminario Teológico Ándover (en Cambridge, cong.).
El Seminario Teológico Episcopal (en Cambridge).
La Escuela Teológica de la Nueva Iglesia (Iglesia de la Nueva Jerusalén).
La Institución Teológica Newton (en Newton, sub. de Boston, bau.).
El Seminario Eclesiástico de San Juan de Boston (cat.).
La Escuela Nocturna de Derecho de la Asociación Cristiana de Jóvenes en Boston.
La Escuela Porcia de Jurisprudencia.
La Escuela de Derecho Súffolk.
El Colegio de Farmacia de Massachusetts.

Boston está situado a 232 millas de distancia de Nueva York, a 3,312 millas de San Francisco y a 1,576 millas de Nueva Orleáns.

BÁLTIMORE, MÁRYLAND.

Báltimore (583,000 hab.) es el centro de las siguientes instituciones de educación:

El Colegio Goúcher, artes liberales (met. episc., muj.).
La Universidad Johns Hopkins (hom.), que comprende:
  Facultad de Filosofía:
    Departamentos de artes y ciencias para alumnos no graduados y graduados.
  Facultad de Medicina.
  Departamento de Ingeniería.

El Colegio Loyola, artes liberales (cat., hom.).
El Colegio Morgan, artes liberales (met. episc., mix., para gente de color).
El Colegio Monte San José, artes liberales (cat., hom.).
El Seminario de Santa María (escuela teológica cat.).
La Escuela Báltimore de Derecho.
La Escuela de Jurisprudencia de la Universidad de Máryland.
El Colegio de Médicos y Cirujanos de Báltimore.
El Colegio Médico de Máryland.
La Escuela de Medicina de la Universidad de Máryland.
El Colegio Báltimore de Cirugía Dental.
El Departamento Dental de la Universidad de Máryland.
El Colegio Máryland de Farmacia de la Universidad de Máryland.

Báltimore está situada a 185 millas de distancia de Nueva York, a 3,076 de San Francisco y a 1,158 millas de Nueva Orleáns.

SAN FRANCISCO, CALIFORNIA.

San Francisco (500,000 hab.) es uno de los principales puertos de entrada y el centro de las siguientes instituciones de educación:

La Universidad Léland Stánford (mix.), que comprende:
    Departamentos de Artes y Ciencias para estudiantes no graduados y graduados.
    Departamento de Medicina.
    Escuela de Jurisprudencia.
La Universidad de San Ignacio (cat., hom.):
    Colegio de Filosofía, Ciencias y Letras.
    Colegio de Jurisprudencia.
    Colegio de Ingeniería.
La Universidad de California, bajo la dirección del estado (mix.):
    Colegio de Letras.
    Colegio de Ciencias Sociales.
    Colegio de Ciencias Naturales.
    Colegio de Comercio.
    Colegio de Agricultura.
    Colegio de Mecánica.
    Colegio de Minas.
    Colegio de Ingeniería Civil.
    Colegio de Química.
    Colegio de Medicina (departamento para graduados en Los Ángeles).
    Colegio Dental.
    Escuela de Arquitectura.
    Escuela de Pedagogía.
    Escuela de Derecho.
    Escuela para Graduados.
    Colegio Hastings de Jurisprudencia.
    Colegio California de Farmacia.
El Seminario Teológico Bautista de la Costa del Pacífico.
El Seminario Teológico del Pacífico.
La Escuela Unitaria del Pacífico para el Ministerio Eclesiástico.
La Escuela de Derecho de San Francisco.
El Colegio de Médicos y Cirujanos:
    Departamento Dental.
    Departamento de Farmacia.
El Colegio Veterinario de San Francisco.

San Francisco se encuentra a 3,183 millas de distancia de Nueva York y a 2,477 millas de Nueva Orleáns.

NUEVA ORLEÁNS, LOUISIANA.

Nueva Orleáns (400,000 hab.) es el puerto principal de los Estados del Golfo y encierra las siguientes instituciones de educación:

La Universidad Loyola (cat., hom.), que comprende:
  Colegio de Artes y Ciencias.
  Colegio de Farmacia.
La Universidad de Nueva Orleáns (met. episc., mix., para gente de color).
La Universidad Tulane de Louisiana (hom.), comprende:
  Colegio de Artes y Ciencias.
  Colegio de Tecnología.
  Departamento para Graduados.
  Colegio de Medicina.
  Escuela de Farmacia.
  Escuela Dental.
  Escuela de Higiene y Medicina Tropical.
  Escuela de Medicina para Graduados.
  Departamento de Jurisprudencia.
El Colegio Conmemorativo H. Sophie Néwcomb (afiliado a la Universidad Tulane de Louisiana, muj.):
  Escuela de Artes.
  Escuela de Música.
  Escuela de Pedagogía.
El Departamento Teológico de la Universidad Léland (bau.)
El Colegio de Farmacia Nueva Orleáns.

Nueva Orleáns se encuentra a 1,344 millas de distancia de Nueva York y a 2,477 de San Francisco.

WÁSHINGTON, DISTRITO DE COLUMBIA.

Wáshington (348,077 hab.) es el centro de las siguientes instituciones de educación:

La Universidad Americana, escuela de artes y ciencias para graduados (met. episc., mix.).
La Universidad Católica de América (hom.) comprende:
  Escuela de Letras.
  Escuela de Derecho.
  Escuela de Filosofía.
  Escuela de Ciencia Sagrada (cat.).
  Escuela de Ciencias.
  Departamento para Graduados.
  Escuela de Pedagogía (muj.).
El Colegio Trinidad, artes liberales (afiliado a la Universidad Católica de América, muj.).
El Colegio Gallaudet, artes y ciencias liberales, bajo la dirección nacional (para sordos, mix.).

La Universidad Georgetown (cat., hom.) comprende:
- Colegio Georgetown, artes y ciencias.
- Escuela de Medicina.
- Escuela Dental.
- Escuela de Jurisprudencia.
- Escuela para Graduados.

La Universidad Jorge Wáshington (mix.):
- Colegio Columbian, artes y ciencias.
- Escuela para Estudios de Grados.
- Colegio de Ingeniería.
- Colegio de Pedagogía.
- Escuela de Jurisprudencia.
- Escuela de Medicina.
- Escuela Dental.
- Colegio Nacional de Farmacia.
- Colegio de Medicina Veterinaria.

La Universidad Hóward, bajo la dirección nacional (mix., para gente de color), comprende:
- Escuela de Artes Liberales:
  - Colegio de Artes y Ciencias.
  - Colegio de Pedagogía.
- Escuela de Arte Manual y Ciencia Aplicada.
- Conservatorio de Música.
- Escuela de Teología.
- Escuela de Medicina:
  - Colegio Médico.
  - Colegio Dental.
  - Colegio de Farmacia.

El Colegio Saint John, artes y ciencias (cat., hom.).
La Escuela de Derecho de la Universidad Nacional.
El Colegio de Derecho de Wáshington.
El Colegio de Cirugía Veterinaria de los Estados Unidos.

Wáshington se encuentra situado a 225 millas de distancia de Nueva York, a 3,116 de San Francisco y a 1,118 millas de Nueva Orleáns.

SECCIÓN TERCERA.

CAPÍTULO I.

REQUISITOS DE ADMISIÓN.

El ingreso a los colegios norteamericanos o a los departamentos que los representan en las universidades requiere generalmente como preparación un curso de cuatro años, o su equivalencia, en las escuelas secundarias. Existiendo gran diversidad en el programa y cursos de las escuelas secundarias, han adoptado los colegios, de común acuerdo, la regla de expresar por "unidades" los requisitos de admisión. La siguiente definición es la que rige generalmente en todos los colegios y escuelas de segundo grado:

Una unidad representa el curso de cualquier materia durante el año, que constituya aproximadamente la cuarta parte de los estudios generales del año escolar. Los cuatro años de estudio según el programa de las escuelas secundarias se estiman así como la representación de 16 unidades de labor.

Esta clasificación permite cierta medida de la labor realizada en las escuelas secundarias. Tomando como base el curso reglamentario de cuatro años en tales instituciones, se supone que la duración del año escolar es de 36 a 40 semanas y que la clase se dicta durante cuarenta o sesenta minutos, cuatro o cinco veces semanales; calculando que en circunstancias ordinarias no puede vencerse una clase de manera satisfactoria en menos de ciento veinte horas, o su equivalente. Así, las escuelas organizadas bajo programa diferente en relación al curso de cuatro años se hallan, sin embargo, en condiciones de medir su labor por medio de unidades.

De la anterior definición se deduce que el curso de cuatro años en las high-schools se compone regularmente de 16 unidades de labor. Los requisitos de admisión en los colegios principales exigen de catorce a dieciseis unidades. Los colegios que requieren menos de catorce unidades no se consideran de lo mejor.

Dos métodos de admisión se acostumbran generalmente. En el oeste y el oeste central, como en algunos lugares del este, los colegios admiten alumnos que presenten un buen certificado. El candidato a ingreso debe presentar un manifiesto del director o superior de la escuela donde haya hecho sus estudios, indicando el número y la clase de materias que hubiere practicado. Si este certificado es satisfactorio con respecto de los cursos requeridos para el ingreso al colegio y el rango de la escuela es conocido y aceptado por los directores del colegio, el candidato queda admitido sin mayores formalidades.

El segunde método de admisión, usado por muchas de las antiguas instituciones del este, consiste en el examen de los candidatos.

Para sistematizar los exámenes de ingreso y los cursos que ofrecen las escuelas secundarias, unas treinta instituciones que acostumbran este método han formado, de acuerdo con las asociaciones principales de los colegios y escuelas secundarias, una organización llamada Junta Examinadora de Admisión para colegios. El estudiante que da examen ante dicha junta de las materias requeridas para el ingreso, es admitido en cualquiera de los colegios asociados a esta organización, y aceptado también generalmente en muchas otras instituciones, pues que la Junta Examinadora mantiene muy alto su estandarte de admisión. Sin embargo, algunas otras instituciones que aceptan candidatos después de examen prefieren seguir sus propias regulaciones en esta materia.

Los requisitos de ingreso de sesenta y dos instituciones que describimos en la Sección VI indican que existe gran diversidad no sólo en las materias requeridas por los diferentes centros de educación, sino en el número de unidades prescritas y en la manera como se reparten dichas unidades. Ya sea admitido el alumno bajo el certificado de la escuela secundaria o bajo el de la Junta Examinadora de Admisión para colegios, o presente exámenes particulares en la institución a la cual pretende ingresar, debe someterse a los requisitos especiales de esta institución con respecto a las materias y unidades prescritas.

Los exámenes de la Junta de Admisión abrazan casi todas las materias exigidas o aceptadas por las principales instituciones del país. La definición de estas materias servirá, por consiguiente, para mostrar el plan de la educación secundaria en sus diversas ramificaciones. Las partes esenciales de los últimos prospectos se copian en las páginas siguientes. Su lectura atenta puede indicar al estudiante extranjero que intente ingresar en un colegio norteamericano, si sus estudios preliminares pueden contarse como preparación suficiente para la admisión en el colegio elegido.[1] Muchas instituciones, sin embargo, están dispuestas a hacer ciertas concesiones sobre los requisitos exigidos a los estudiantes extranjeros que puedan ofrecer preparación equivalente en materias diversas de las prescritas.

ESTUDIOS REQUERIDOS POR LA JUNTA EXAMINADORA DE ADMISIÓN PARA COLEGIOS.

Inglés	*1.*	Gramática y composición.
	2.	Literatura.[2]
Historia	*A.*	Historia antigua.
	B.	Historia de la Edad Media y moderna.
	C.	Historia de Inglaterra.
	D.	Historia norteamericana y del gobierno civil.

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[1] La Junta Examinadora funciona en casi todos los estados, en el Colegio Oahu, Honolulu, y en el Colegio de la Universidad, Gower Street, W. C., Londres, Inglaterra.

[2] Este curso requiere, además del examen, un certificado del profesor. Pueden pedirse estos certificados en blanco al Secretario de la Junta Examinadora de Admisión.

Latín	*1.*	Gramática.
	2.	Composición elemental en prosa.
	3.	Segundo año de latín.
	4.	Cicerón (La Ley Manilia y Archias) y traducción de prosa a primera vista.
	5.	Virgilio (Eneida I, II y IV o VI) y traducción de poesía a primera vista.
	6.	Composición avanzada en prosa.
	P.	Traducción de prosa avanzada a primera vista.
	Q.	Traducción de poesía a primera vista.
Griego	*A1.*	Grámatica.
	A2.	Composición elemental en prosa.
	B.	Xenofonte.
	C.	Homero (Iliada I-III).
	F.	Composición en prosa.
	G.	Traducción de prosa a primera vista.
	CH.	Homero (Iliada I-III) y traducción de Homero a primera vista.
Francés	*A.*	Elemental.
	B.	Medio.
	BC.	Medio y superior.
Alemán	*A.*	Elemental.
	B.	Medio.
	BC.	Medio y superior.
Español.		
Matemáticas	*A.*	Algebra elemental completa.
	A1.	Algebra hasta la cuadrática.
	A2.	De la cuadrática para adelante.
	B.	Algebra superior.
	C.	Geometría plana.
	D.	Geometría del espacio.
	E.	Trigonometría.
	F.	Trigonometría plana.
Física.[1]		
Química.[1]		
Biología.[1]		
Botánica.[1]		
Dibujo.		
Geografía.[1]		
Zoología.[1]		
Música	*A.*	Armonía.
	B.	Piano.[2]
	C.	Canto.[2]
	D.	Violín.[2]

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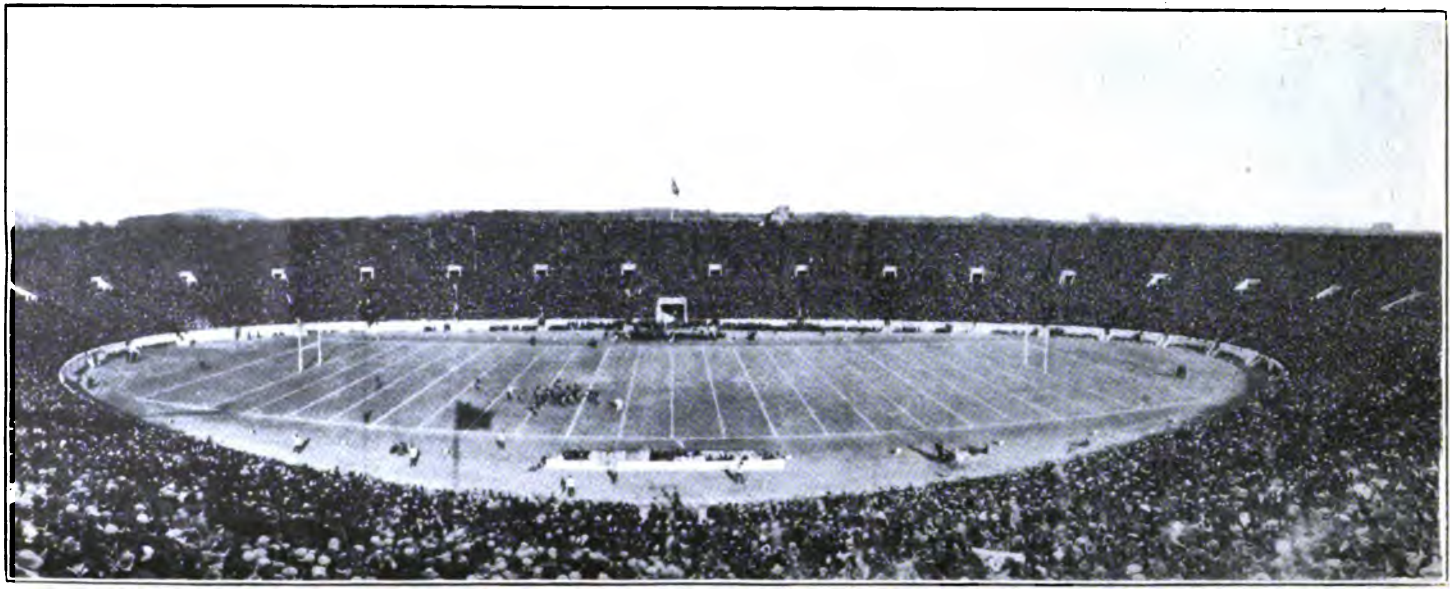
[1] Estos cursos requieren, además del examen, un certificado del profesor. Pueden pedirse estos certificados en blanco al Secretario de la Junta Examinadora de Admisión. Los candidatos que deseen presentar libretas de laboratorio, dibujos, etc., deben enviarlos directamente a la autoridad respectiva en las universidades, colegios, o escuelas científicas donde pretendan ingresar.

[2] Las mismas preguntas se dirigirán en el examen con respecto al piano, canto, o violín.



EL "BOWL" (OLLA) DE YALE, DONDE TIENEN LUGAR LOS CONCURSOS ATLÉTICOS DE LA UNIVERSIDAD YALE, NEW HAVEN, CONN.

VISTA DE LOS EDIFICIOS DE LA UNIVERSIDAD CORNELL, ITHACA, N. Y.

LITERATURA.

Una y media unidades.

El segundo objeto se consigue por medio de dos grupos de libros clasificados respectivamente: Lectura y estudios, de los cuales se forma un curso progresivo en literatura que se prolongará cuatro años. Se educará al estudiante en la lectura de estos libros en alta voz, incitándole a recomendar a la memoria algunos de los pasajes más notables anto en prosa como en verso. Para contribuir a su apreciación literaria se le instará a conocer los hechos principales de la vida de los autores cuyas obra slee, y a darse uenta del lugar que ocupan dichas obras en la historia de la literatura.

A. LECTURA.

El objeto de esta clase es crear en el alumno el hábito de la lectura inteligente y desarrollar su afición por la buena literatura, indicándole la manera de apreciar los mejores modelos. Es posible que lea el estudiante cuidadosamente sus libros, pero sin fijar la atención en ciertos detalles que, una vez señalados, le permitirán apreciar la idea principal y todo el encanto de la obra.

Con el fin de procurar mayor libertad de elección, los libros para lectura están arreglados en los grupos siguientes, de los cuales deben seleccionarse dos ejemplares por lo menos de cada grupo, excepto de los comprendidos en el grupo primero que todos son obligatorios:

Grupo Primero—Clásicos Traducidos.

El *Antiguo Testamento*, comprendiendo por lo menos los principales episodios del Génesis, el Exodo, el Libro de Josué, el de los Jueces, Samuel, los Reyes y Daniel, con la historia de Ruth y Esther.

La Odisea, omitiendo si se desea los cantos I, II, III, IV, V, XV, XVI y XVII.

La Iliada, omitiendo si se desea los cantos XI, XIII, XIV, XV, XVII y XXI.

La Eneida.

La *Odisea, Iliada* y *Eneida* se leerán en traducciones inglesas de excelente literatura.

La selección de cualquiera de los otros grupos puede substituirse con cualquiera de las obras que aquí clasificamos.

Grupo Segundo—Shakespeare.

Midsummer Night's Dream,
Merchant of Venice.
As You Like It.
Twelfth Night.
The Tempest.
Romeo and Juliet.
King John.
Richard II.
Richard III.
Henry V.
Coriolanus.
Julius Cæsar.
Macbeth.
Hamlet.

Grupo Tercero—Novelas en Prosa.

Malory: *Morte d'Arthur* (100 páginas aproximadamente).
Bunyan: *Pilgrims Progress*, Part I.
Swift: *Gulliver's Travels* (viajes a Liliput y a Brobdingnag).
Defoe: *Robinson Crusoe*, Part I.
Goldsmith: *Vicar of Wakefield.*
Frances Burney: *Evelina.*
Walter Scott: *cualquiera* de sus novelas.
Jane Austen: *cualquiera* de sus novelas.
María Edgeworth: *Castle Rackrent*, o *The Absentee.*
Charles Dickens: *cualquiera* de sus novelas.
William Thackeray: *cualquiera* de sus novelas.
George Eliot: *cualquiera* de sus novelas.
Mrs. Gaskell: *Cranford.*

Kingsley: *Westward Ho!* o *Hereward, the Wake.*
Reade: *The Cloister and the Hearth.*
Blackmore: *Lorna Doone.*
Hughes: *Tom Brown's Schooldays.*
Stevenson: *Treasure Island*, o *Kidnapped*, o *Master of Ballantrae.*
Fenimore Cooper: *cualquiera* de sus novelas.
Poe: *Selected Tales.*
Hawthorne: *The House of the Seven Gables*, o *Twice Told Tales*, o *Mosses from an Old Manse.*
Una colección de *Historietas* por varios de los mejores escritores.

Grupo Cuarto—Ensayos, Biografías, Etc.

Addison y Steele: *The Sir Roger de Coverley Papers*, o selecciones del *Tatler* y el *Spectator* (200 páginas aproximadamente).
Boswell: Selecciones de la *Life of Johnson* (200 páginas más o menos).
Franklin: *Autobiography.*
Irving: Selecciones del *Sketch Book* (200 páginas más o menos), o *Life of Goldsmith.*
Southey: *Life of Nelson.*
Lamb: Selecciones de los *Essays of Elia* (100 páginas aproximadamente).
Lockhart: Selecciones de la *Life of Scott* (200 páginas más o menos).
Thackeray: Lectura de *Swift*, *Addison*, y *Steele* en los *English Humorists.*
Macaulay: Cualquiera de los siguientes ensayos: *Lord Clive*, *Warren Hastings*, *Milton*, *Addison*, *Goldsmith*, *Frederick the Great*, y *Madame d'Arblay.*
Trevelyan: Selecciones de la *Life of Macaulay* (200 páginas aproximadamente).
Ruskin: *Sesame and Lilies*, o *Selections* (150 páginas más o menos).
Dana: *Two Years Before the Mast.*
Lincoln: *Selections*, incluyendo por lo menos los dos inaugurales, y los discursos en el edificio de la independencia en Gettysburg; la última conferencia pública, la Carta a Horace Greeley; y una breve memoria o juicio crítico de Lincoln.
Parkman: *The Oregon Trail.*
Thoreau: *Walden.*
Lowell: *Selected Essays* (150 páginas aproximadamente).
Holmes: *The Autocrat of the Breakfast Table.*
Stevenson: *An Inland Voyage* y *Travels with a Donkey.*
Huxley: *Autobiography* y selecciones de *Lay Sermons*, incluyendo los discursos sobre *Improving Natural Knowledge*, *A Liberal Education*, y *A Piece of Chalk.*
Una colección de *Essays* por Bacon, Lamb, De Quincey, Hazlitt, Emerson y escritores modernos.
Una colección de *Letters* por diversos afamados escritores.

Grupo Quinto—Poesía.

Palgrave's *Golden Treasury* (*First Series*): *Books II and III*, prestando especial atención a Dryden, Collins, Gray, Cowper y Burns.
Palgrave's *Golden Treasury* (*First Series*): *Book IV*, prestando especial atención Wordsworth, Keats, y Shelley (si no se escogieron para el estudio B).
Goldsmith: *The Traveller* and *The Deserted Village.*
Pope: *The Rape of the Lock.*
Una colección de baladas inglesas y escocesas, como por ejemplo, las de *Robin Hood*, *The Battle of Otterburn*, *King Estmere*, *Young Beichan*, *Bewick and Grahame*, *Sir Patrick Spens*, y selecciones de baladas modernas.
Coleridge: *The Ancient Mariner*, *Christabel*, y *Kubla Khan.*
Byron: *Childe Harold, Canto III* o *IV*, y *The Prisoner of Chillon.*
Scott: *The Lady of the Lake* o *Marmion.*

Macaulay: *The Lays of Ancient Rome*, *The Battle of Naseby*, *The Armada*, *Ivry*.
Tennyson: *The Princess*, o *Gareth and Lynette*, *Lancelot and Elaine*, y *The Passing of Arthur*.
Browning: *Cavalier Tunes*, *The Lost Leader*, *How They Brought the Good News from Ghent to Aix*, *Home Thoughts from Abroad*, *Home Thoughts from the Sea*, *Incident of the French Camp*, *Hervé Riel*, *Pheidippides*, *My Last Duchess*, *Up at a Villa-Down in the City*, *The Italian in England*, *The Patriot*, *The Pied Piper*, "*De Gustibus*"—*Instans Tyrannus*.
Arnold: *Sohrab and Rustum*, y *The Forsaken Merman*.
Selecciones de *American Poetry*, prestando atención especial a Poe, Lowell, Longfellow, y Whittier.

B. ESTUDIO.

Esta parte de los requisitos se considera como la continuación natural y lógica de las primeras lecturas del alumno, dando mayor importancia a la forma y estilo, al exacto significado de palabras y frases, y a la comprensión de las alusiones. Los libros apropiados para el estudio están dispuestos en cuatro grupos de cada uno de los cuales debe elegirse una obra.

Grupo Primero—Drama.

Shakespeare: *Julius Cæsar*, o *Macbeth*, o *Hamlet*.

Grupo Segundo—Poesía.

Milton: *L'Allegro*, *Il Penseroso*, *o* también *Comus* o *Lycidas*.
Tennyson: *The Coming of Arthur*, *The Holy Grail*, y *The Passing of Arthur*.
Selecciones de Wordsworth, Keats, y Shelley en el Canto IV de *Palgrave's Golden Treasury* (*First Series*).

Grupo Tercero—Oratoria.

Burke: *Speech on Conciliation with America*.
Macaulay: los dos *Speeches on Copyright*.
Lincoln: *Speech at Cooper Union*.
Washington: *Farewell Address*.
Webster: *First Bunker Hill Oration*.

Grupo Cuarto—Ensayos.

Carlyle: *Essay on Burns*, y una selección de los *Poems* de Burns.
Macaulay: *Life of Johnson*.
Emerson: *Essay on Manners*.

EXAMEN.

Aun cuando el trabajo escrito esté muy cuidado en cuanto al argumento, no se considerará satisfactorio si tiene defectos de ortografía, puntuación, o cualquiera otro de importancia. El examen se dividirá en dos partes:

I. GRAMÁTICA Y COMPOSICIÓN.

En gramática y composición se propondrán al candidato varias preguntas sobre las partes esenciales de estos estudios, como la relación que tienen entre sí las diversas partes de la oración, la construcción de palabras en una oración de cierta dificultad, y los giros aceptados por el buen uso en el inglés moderno que no deben confundirse con los errores corrientes. El trabajo principal en composición consistirá en uno o más ensayos desarrollando un tema en varios acápites; el argumento se tomará de los libros que se hubieren leído, de los diferentes estudios del candidato y de sus conocimientos generales y de las impresiones recibidas aparte de sus lecturas. Con este fin, propondrá el examinador varios temas, ocho o diez quizá, de los cuales el candidato se encontrará en libertad de elegir aquel que mejor le conviniere.

II. LITERATURA.

El examen en literatura incluirá:

A. Preguntas generales destinadas a dar la medida del conocimiento y apreciación de la literatura que el candidato haya adquirido por medio de los requisitos arriba especificados bajo el título A. LECTURA. El candidato presentará una lista de los libros que hubiere leído, certificada por el director de la escuela en que haya seguido los estudios preparatorios; pero dichos libros no servirán de base a preguntas detalladas[1]

B. El examen sobre los libros comprendidos en la sección B. ESTUDIO, consistirá en preguntas acerca de su contenido, forma e idea fundamental; así como sobre el significado de ciertos giros, frases y alusiones que requieran conocimiento especial de las palabras y buena apreciación de las condiciones sobresalientes del estilo. Se propondrán también preguntas generales respecto a la vida del autor, sus diversas obras, y el período a que pertenecen en la historia de la literatura.

HISTORIA.

Los requisitos en historia están basados en las recomendaciones del comité de siete instituciones de la Asociación Histórica Americana.

A. *Historia Antigua*, con referencia especial a la historia griega y romana, incluyendo también un breve estudio de introducción sobre las naciones primitivas y los acontecimientos más notables anteriores a la muerte de Carlo Magno (814). Una unidad.

B. *Historia Europea de la Edad Media y Moderna*, desde la muerte de Carlo Magno hasta la actualidad. Una unidad.

C. *Historia de Inglaterra.* Una unidad.

D. *Historia de los Estados Unidos y del Gobierno Civil.* Una unidad.

Los exámenes de historia se preparan en forma tal que requiera a la vez memoria y discernimiento de parte del alumno. Esto supone el uso de buenos libros de texto, lecturas suplementarias, y práctica en trabajos escritos. Los conocimientos geográficos se examinarán haciendo esbozar en un mapa el sitio y lineamiento especial de los lugares.

LATÍN—NUEVOS REQUISITOS.

Las exigencias en esta materia están de acuerdo con las disposiciones de la comisión organizadora de los requisitos de latín para el ingreso a los colegios, hechos a la Asociación Filológica Americana, en octubre de 1909:

I. CLASE Y CANTIDAD DE LECTURA.

1. La lectura en latín, además de ciertas obras y determinados autores prescritos, comprenderá por lo menos: Cæsar, Guerras Gálicas, I-IV; Cicerón, Oraciones contra Catilina, en favor de la Ley Manilia y de Archias; Virgilio, Eneida, I-IV.

2. Las escuelas seleccionarán la cantidad de lectura especificada arriba, de los siguientes autores y obras: Cæsar (Guerras Gálicas y Civiles) y Nepos (Vidas); Cicerón (cartas, oraciones y De Senectute) y Salustio (Guerra Catilina y de Yugurta) Virgilio (Bucólicas, Geórgicas y Eneida); y Ovidio (Metamórfosis, Fasti y Tristia.)

II. PROGRAMA DE EXÁMENES.

1. *Traducción a primera vista.*—Los candidatos presentarán examen de traducción de prosa y verso a primera vista. El vocabulario, estilo y orden de ideas de los pasajes propuestos, responderá a la preparación asegurada por las lecturas arriba indicadas.

2. *Lectura prescrita.*—Los candidatos serán también sometidos a examen sobre las siguientes lecturas prescritas: Cicerón, oraciones en favor de la Ley Manilia y Archias; y Virgilio, Eneida, I, II y IV o V a elección del alumno, con preguntas sobre el

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[1] Certificados en blanco para este objeto pueden obtenerse del secretario de la Junta Examinadora de Admisión.

argumento del texto, alusiones históricas y literarias y prosodia. Todas las hojas en que se haya preparado pasajes de las lecturas prescritas para traducción, contendrán igualmente uno o más pasajes para traducción a primera vista, y los candidatos deberán cumplir satisfactoriamente con ambas condiciones para obtener un buen certificado de exámenes.

3. *Gramática y composición.*—Los exámenes en estas materias demandarán el conocimiento perfecto de todas las inflexiones regulares y formas irregulares comunes, asi como de la sintaxis ordinaria y el vocabulario de la prosa de los autores que se hubieren leído en la escuela, con la habilidad necesaria para hacer uso de estos conocimientos al escribir sencilla prosa latina.

INDICACIONES RESPECTO A LA PREPARACIÓN.

Los ejercicios de traducción a primera vista deben comenzarse en las escuelas desde las primeras lecciones en que se presentan frases latinas de diferente extensión, y continuarse durante todo el curso con la frecuencia suficiente para asegurar labor correcta de parte del estudiante. Se prestará desde el principio especial atención al desarrollo de la facultad de dar a cada palabra su exacto significado, y en consecuencia a la frase completa, tal como aparece; la oración debe leerse y comprenderse según el original, apreciando la fuerza de expresión de cada palabra según el sitio que ocupa y por lo que se infiere de la precedente. La costumbre de leer de esta manera debe alentarse y cultivarse como la mejor preparación para toda traducción que deba hacer el estudiante. Sin embargo, ninguna traducción debe ser una copia literal y mecánica, ni tampoco una traducción libre y difusa. Debe traducirse el significado completo del pasaje según se ha explicado arriba, expresándolo claramente en inglés correcto y natural.

Los exámenes escritos no dan la medida del oído y de la palabra, pero el aprendizaje de cualquier idioma incluye necesariamente instrucción adecuada en este sentido. Así, la labor de la escuela de latín comprenderá gran número de lecturas en alta voz, escritura bajo dictado, y traducción de lo que lee el profesor. Aprender de memoria ciertos pasajes interesantes es también muy conveniente y debe procurarse a menudo.

El trabajo de composición proporcionará al estudiante más amplio conocimiento y mejor adaptación de la prosa que forma la base de sus lecturas en latín. Sería también muy de desear que continuara labor sistemática y regular de composición durante todo el tiempo dedicado a lectura de poesía, para lo cual podría servirle de modelo la prosa de los autores que hubiere leído anteriormente.

EXÁMENES.

En la clasificación de valores se considera 1, 2, 4 y 5 como una unidad, 3 como dos unidades, y 6 como media unidad; pero 3 no tiene valor si no se ofrece por separado; 1, 2 y 6 carecen de valor si no se ofrecen en combinación con 4 ó 5; y en ningún caso se considera el total superior a cuatro unidades.

Se entiende que esta clasificación de valores será reconsiderada después de uno o dos años de ensayo.

1. *Gramática.*—El examen requiere la lectura de determinada cantidad de prosa (véase I, 1 y 2), incluyendo las obras prescritas en prosa (véase II, 2).
2. *Composición elemental en prosa.*—El examen requiere la lectura de determinada cantidad de prosa (véase I, 1 y 2), incluyendo las obras prescritas en prosa (véase II, 2).
3. *Segundo año de latín.*—Este examen se ofrece principalmente a aquellos candidatos que deseen ingresar a colegios que requieran solamente dos años de latín o acepten de igual manera a los que hubieren seguido un curso completo preparatorio. Presupone la lectura de Caesar, Las Guerras Gálicas, de Las Guerras Gálicas y Civiles, y Nepos (Vidas) por lo menos; eligiéndose pasajes adecuados para traducción a primera vista. El examen escrito incluirá también algunas respuestas sencillas de gramática y fácil labor de composición.

4. *Cicerón* (oraciones en favor de la Ley Manilia y de Archias) y *Traducción de prosa a primera vista.*—El examen presupone la lectura de determinada cantidad de prosa (véase I, 1 y 2).
5. *Virgilio* (Eneida I, II y IV o V, a elección del candidato) y *Traducción de poesía a primera vista* (véase I, 1 y 2).
6. *Composición superior en prosa.*

LATÍN—ANTIGUOS REQUISITOS.

Algunas de las materias examinadas antiguamente por la junta están comprendidas en los exámenes que acabamos de describir.

P. *Traducción de prosa superior a primera vista,* sin mayor dificultad que los pasajes ordinarios de las oraciones de Cicerón.

Q. *Traducción de poesía a primera vista,* sin mayor dificultad que la Eneida de Virgilio.

GRIEGO.

Los siguientes requisitos en griego se conforman tanto como es posible a las indicaciones del Comité de los Doce de la Asociación Filológica Americana.

A1. *Gramática:* Inflexiones; reglas sencillas para la composición y derivación de las palabras; sintaxis de los casos y de los verbos; construcción general de las oraciones, dedicando especial atención a las oracionales relativas y condiciones, al discurso indirecto y al subjuntivo.[1] Media unidad.

A2. *Prosa y composición elemental:* Consiste principalmente en la formación de oraciones separadas para comprobar el conocimiento que posee el candidato en construcción gramatical.[2] Media unidad.

El examen de gramática y composición en prosa estará basado en los dos primeros capítulos del *Anabasis* de Xenofonte.

B. *Xenofonte:* Los cuatro primeros capítulos del *Anabasis.* Una unidad.

C. *Homero, Iliada,* I–III: Los tres primeros cantos de la Iliada (omitiendo II, 494. fin), y las construcción, forma y prosodia homéricas. Una unidad.

F. *Composición en prosa:* Prosa seguida basada en Xenofonte y alguna otra prosa ática de análoga dificultad. Media unidad.

G. *Traducción de prosa a primera vista:* No revistiendo mayor dificultad que el *Anabasis* de Xenofonte.

CH. *Homero: Iliada,* I–III, y traducción de Homero a primera vista. Una unidad,

FRANCÉS.

Los requisitos en francés se conforman a las indicaciones del Comité de los Doce de la Asociación Americana de Lenguajes Modernos (2).

A. FRANCÉS ELEMENTAL.

Dos unidades.

OBJETO DE ESTE CURSO.

Al terminar el curso elemental debe encontrarse el alumno capaz de pronunciar el francés correctamente, de leer prosa sencilla a primera vista, de traducir al francés pequeñas frases inglesas del lenguaje familiar, o basadas en el texto francés que se hubiere leído, y de contestar satisfactoriamente a las preguntas sobre rudimentos gramaticales como se definen a continuación.

LABOR CORRESPONDIENTE A ESTE CURSO.

El primer año de curso comprenderá:

1. Cuidadoso ejercicio de pronunciación.

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[1] Algunos colegios consideran el griego *A1* y el *A2* como un solo e indivisible estudio.

[2] El informe del Comité de los Doce, presentado en diciembre de 1898, puede obtenerse en libro separado de la casa D. C. Heath & Co., New York. La lista de textos de estudio, según los requisitos de la Junta Examinadora de Admisión, fué sancionada en diciembre de 1910 por el comité de la Asociación de Lenguajes Modernos.

2. Rudimentos de gramática, incluyendo la inflexión de los verbos regulares y de las irregularidades más frecuentes, el plural de los substantivos, la inflexión de los adjetivos, participios y pronombres; el uso de pronombres personales, adverbios comunes, preposiciones y conjunciones; el orden de las palabras en la oración y las reglas elementales de sintaxis.
3. Frecuentes ejercicios sencillos, destinados no solamente a fijar en la memoria las formas y principios gramaticales, sino a cultivar la facilidad de reproducir las formas más corrientes de expresión.
4. Lectura de 100 a 175 páginas en duodécimo de textos graduados, con práctica constante de traducir al francés fáciles variaciones de las frases leídas (el profesor dará la versión inglesa) y reproducir de memoria algunas otras de los libros de texto.
5. Escritura en francés bajo dictado.

Lectura apropiada para el primer año: libros de texto graduados para principiantes; Bruno, *Le tour de la France;* Compayré, *Yvan Gall;* Laboulaye, *Contes bleus;* Malot, *Sans famille.*

Durante el segundo año comprenderá el curso:

1. Lectura de 250 a 400 páginas de sencilla prosa moderna en forma de historias, comedias. o bocetos históricos o biográficos.
2. Práctica constante de traducir al francés, como en el año anterior, fáciles variaciones sobre los textos leídos.
3. Frecuentes extractos, orales a veces y a veces escritos, de algunos pasajes de los textos leídos.
4. Escritura en francés bajo dictado.
5. Ejercicio continuo de los rudimentos gramaticales, aplicándolos constantemente a la construcción de frases.
6. Dominio de las diversas formas y usos del pronombre y adjetivo pronominal, de todas las formas de verbos irregulares, y del uso más sencillo del condicional y el subjuntivo.

Lectura apropiada para el segundo año: Daudet, *Le Petit Chose:* Erckmann Chatrian, historias; Halévy, *L'Ábbé Constantin*; Labiche et Martin, *Le voyage de M. Perrichon;* Lavisse, *Histoire de France.*

B. FRANCÉS MEDIO.

Una unidad.

OBJETO DE ESTE CURSO.

Al terminar el curso medio de francés debe encontrarse el alumno en condiciones de leer a primera vista prosa o sencilla poesía francesa; de traducir al francés ciertos pasajes en inglés relacionados con la prosa que hubiere leído, y responder preguntas que requieran mayor conocimiento de la sintaxis que el adquirido en el curso elemental.

LABOR CORRESPONDIENTE A ESTE CURSO.

Esta labor comprenderá la lectura de 400 a 600 páginas de alguna dificultad, parte en forma dramática; práctica constante en dar de memoria paráfrasis, extractos o reproducciones en francés de pasajes selectos de los libros leídos; estudio de una gramática de cierta extensión, y escritura bajo dictado.

C. FRANCÉS SUPERIOR.[1]

Una unidad.

OBJETO DE ESTE CURSO.

A la terminación del curso superior debe encontrarse el alumno en condiciones de leer a primera vista, con ayuda de un vocabulario especial de expresiones técnicas, francés difícil por lo menos del siglo diecisiete; escribir en francés un breve ensayo sobre algún tema sencillo en relación con las obras que hubiere leído; traducir al francés un pasaje de prosa sencilla en inglés, y sostener una conversación corriente en francés.

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[1] La junta no recibe exámenes separados en francés superior; pero acepta un solo examen que comprenda los requisitos del curso medio y superior combinados en el mismo grupo.

LABOR CORRESPONDIENTE A ESTE CURSO.

Esta labor comprenderá la lectura de 600 a 1,000 páginas de excelente francés, clásico y moderno, explicándose en clase solamente los pasajes difíciles; composición de numerosos temas cortos en francés, y estudio de la sintaxis.

Lectura apropiada para el cuarto año: Dumas hijo, *La question d'argent*; Hugo, *Quatre-vingt-treize*, o *Les misérables;* Loti, *Pêcheur d'Islande;* Taine, *L'Ancien régime;* Vigny, *Cinq-Mars;* y una antología en verso.

BC. FRANCÉS MEDIO Y SUPERIOR.

Dos unidades.

ALEMÁN.

Los requisitos para el alemán se conforman con las indicaciones del Comité de los Doce de la Asociación Americana de Lenguajes Modernos.[1]

A. ALEMÁN ELEMENTAL.

Dos unidades.

OBJETO DE ESTE CURSO.

A la terminación del curso elemental en alemán debe encontrarse el alumno en condiciones de leer a primera vista y traducir, siempre que se le demande, pasajes de diálogo sencillo o prosa narrativa, para lo cual se le prestará ayuda en la construcción y en las palabras difíciles; de traducir al alemán frases inglesas cortas, tomadas del lenguaje familiar o basadas en libros adecuados para traducción; y responder a las preguntas sobre rudimentos gramaticales como se especifica a continuación.

LABOR CORRESPONDIENTE A ESTE CURSO.

La labor correspondiente al primer año comprenderá:

1. Cuidadoso ejercicio de pronunciación.
2. Frecuente repetición de memoria de sencillas frases familiares.
3. Ejercicio sobre los rudimentos gramaticales, esto es, la inflexión del artículo, de los substantivos usados en el lenguaje ordinario, de los adjetivos, pronombres, verbos regulares y de los irregulares más usados, como también sobre el uso de las preposiciones más comunes. los modos de los verbos auxiliares y las reglas elementales de sintaxis y construcción.
4. Frecuentes ejercicios sencillos destinados no solamente a fijar los principios y formas gramaticales sino a cultivar la facilidad de expresión.
5. Lectura de 75 a 100 páginas de textos graduados para principiantes, con práctica constante de traducir al alemán sencillas variaciones de frases elegidas en los libros de lectura, de las cuales dará el profesor la versión inglesa; y de reproducir de memoria las oraciones leídas.

   Después de la lectura de alguno de los muchos textos preparados especialmente para principiantes, son libros adecuados para el primer año:[2] Meissner, *Aus meiner Welt;* Blüthgen, *Das Peterle von Nürnberg;* Storm, *Immensee;* o cualquiera de las historias cortas de Baumbach.

Durante el segundo año comprenderá:

1. Lectura de 150 a 200 páginas de literatura en forma de sencillas novelas y comedias.

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[1] El informe del Comité de los Doce, presentado en diciembre de 1898, puede obtenerse en libreto separado de la casa D. C. Heath & Co., New York. La lista de textos de estudio, según los requisitos de la Junta Examinadora de Admisión, fué sancionada en diciembre de 1910 por el comité de la Asociación de Lenguajes Modernos.

[2] Cada año deben aprenderse de memoria por lo menos seis poemas alemanes.

2. Práctica de traducir al alemán variaciones fáciles sobre los temas que se hubieren leído y también en la reproducción libre y sumaria, a veces oral y otras escrita, de ciertos pasajes cortos y sencillos, elegidos de los libros de lectura.
3. Ejercició continuo de los rudimentos gramaticales, con el fin de acostumbrar al alumno a usar de sus conocimientos en la formación de frases, y de afirmar su dominio correcto en el lenguaje técnico gramatical.

Son libros apropiados para el segundo año: Gerstäcker, *Germelshausen;* Eichendorff, *Aus dem Leben eines Taugenichts;* Wildenbruch, *Das edle Blut;* Jensen, *Die braune Erica;* Seidel, *Leberecht Hühnchen;* Fulda, *Unter vier Augen;* Benedic, *Lustspiele* (cualquiera de ellos). Se recomienda lectura científica a los estudiantes que se preparan a ingresar en alguna escuela de ciencias.

B. ALEMÁN MEDIO.

Una unidad.

OBJETO DE ESTE CURSO.

A la terminación del curso medio de alemán debe encontrarse el alumno en condiciones de leer a primera vista prosa de cierta dificultad, ya clásica o moderna; de traducir al alemán pasajes de inglés sencillo parafraseado de los libros de texto alemanes; responder cualquier pregunta en gramática con respecto a las formas usuales y principios esenciales del idioma, incluyendo sintaxis y construcción; y traducir y aún explicar, siempre que fuere necesario, algún pasaje de literatura clásica tomada de los textos previamente estudiados.

LABOR CORRESPONDIENTE A ESTE CURSO.

El curso medio en alemán comprenderá, además del curso elemental, la lectura de 400 páginas aproximadamente de prosa y poesía de cierta dificultad, con práctica constante en hacer paráfrasis, extractos o reproducciones de memoria, ya oralmente o por escrito, de pasajes selectos de los textos leídos; ejercicio gramatical sobre los verbos irregulares menos comunes y sobre el uso del artículo, los casos, verbos auxiliares de todas clases, tiempos y modos (con especial referencia al infinitivo y al subjuntivo), como también sobre la construcción y formación de las palabras.

Son libros apropiados para el tercer año las *Novellen* o *Erzählungen* de Heyse, Riehl, Keller, Storm, Meyer, Ebner-Eschenbach y W. Raabe; el *Wilhelm Tell* de Schiller; *Die Journalisten* de Freytag; y *Harzreise* de Heine.

C. ALEMÁN SUPERIOR.[1]

Una unidad.

OBJETO DE ESTE CURSO.

A la terminación del curso superior el alumno debe encontrarse en condiciones de leer, tras de breve observación, cualquier literatura de los últimos 150 años siempre que no tenga extraordinarias dificultades; traducir al alemán pasajes de sencilla prosa inglesa, responder en alemán a las preguntas sobre la vida y obras de los grandes escritores cuyas producciones se hubieren estudiado, y escribir en alemán una breve composición original sobre determinado tema.

LABOR CORRESPONDIENTE A ESTE CURSO.

El curso superior comprende la lectura de 500 páginas más o menos de buena literatura en prosa y en verso; lectura referente a la vida y obras de los grandes autores que se estudian durante el año; composiciones cortas en alemán sobre diversas materias indicadas; y traducción libre de inglés al alemán.

Son libros adecuados para el cuarto año:[2] las obras de Goethe, Schiller, Lessing, y la historia de su vida.

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[1] La junta no recibe exámenes separados en alemán superior; pero acepta un solo examen que comprenda los requisitos del curso medio y superior combinados en el mismo grupo.

[2] Cada año deben aprenderse de memoria por lo menos seis poemas en alemán.

BC. ALEMÁN MEDIO Y SUPERIOR.

Dos unidades.

ESPAÑOL.

Dos unidades.

Los requisitos del curso de español, que siguen el espíritu y la forma de las indicaciones hechas para el francés y el alemán por el Comité de los Doce de la Asociación de Lenguajes Modernos, se basan en la norma sugerida por un comité de esta misma asociación en diciembre de 1910.

OBJETO DE ESTE CURSO

A la terminación del curso elemental debe encontrarse el alumno en condiciones de pronunciar el español correctamente, de leer a primera vista prosa sencilla, de traducir al español frases inglesas comunes tomadas del idioma familiar o basadas sobre parte de los textos en español que se hubieren leído; y de responder preguntas sobre rudimentos gramaticales como se indica a continuación.

LABOR CORRESPONDIENTE A ESTE CURSO.

Durante el primer año comprenderá este curso:

1. Cuidadoso ejercicio de pronunciación.
2. Rudimentos gramaticales, incluyendo la conjugación de los verbos regulares y las formas irregulares más comunes, la inflexión de los substantivos, adjetivos y pronombres, y las reglas de sintaxis más elementales.
3. Ejercicios con ejemplos de los principios gramaticales.
4. Lectura cuidadosa y traducción correcta a buen inglés de 100 páginas más o menos de prosa y verso sencillos, y traducción al español de fáciles variaciones de las frases leídas.
5. Escritura de español bajo dictado.

El segundo año comprenderá la labor:

1. Lectura de 100 páginas aproximadamente de prosa y poesía.
2. Ejercicio de traducción del español al inglés y de variaciones inglesas del texto al español.
3. Estudio detenido de los elementos gramaticales y de la sintaxis.
4. Dominio de las formas irregulares de los verbos y del uso de los tiempos y de los modos.
5. Escritura de español bajo dictado.
6. Estudio de memoria de algunos poémas cortos y fáciles.

Debe insistirse especialmente en obtener trabajos correctos más bien que rápidos. La lectura en español puede seleccionarse de la manera siguiente: Una colección de historias cortas y sencillas o poesía lírica, cuidadosamente graduada: *El pájaro verde*, de Juan Valera; *Fortuna*, de Pérez Escrich; *Zaragüeta*, de Ramos Carrión y Vital Aza; *José*, de Palacio Valdés; *El Capitán Veneno*, de Pedro de Alarcón; y algunos cuentos selectos de Pedro de Alarcón o Antonio de Trueba.

Todas las escuelas secundarias en las cuales se enseña el español deben contar en su biblioteca con varios diccionarios de español-inglés y viceversa; el diccionario español de la Real Academia Española; uno o más manuales de la historia de la literatura española, como el de Fitzmaurice-Kelly; y la Historia de la Literatura Española por Ticknor.

MATEMÁTICAS.

Los requisitos anotados a continuación están de acuerdo con las recomendaciones del comité de la Sociedad Americana de Matemáticas, en septiembre de 1903.

A. ÁLGEBRA ELEMENTAL.

Una y media unidades.

Las cuatro operaciones fundamentales del álgebra.

Multiplicación, y determinación del mayor de los factores comunes y del submúltiplo común más bajo por medio de esta operación.

Quebrados, incluyendo quebrados complejos, razones y proporciones.

Ecuación lineal, numérica y literal, con una o más incógnitas.

Problemas de ecuación lineal.

Radicales, incluyendo la extracción de la raíz cuadrada de los polinomios y de los números.

Exponentes, incluyendo fraccionarios y negativos.

Ecuación cuadrada, numérica y literal.

Casos sencillos de ecuaciones con una o más incógnitas que puedan resolverse por medio de ecuaciones lineales o cuadradas.

Problemas de ecuación cuadrada.

Teorema binomio para exponentes integrales positivos.

Fórmulas para obtener el noveno término y la suma de términos de progresión aritmética y geométrica, con aplicaciones.

Se entiende que el alumno deberá solucionar durante todo el curso numerosos problemas cuyas preguntas se pondrán en ecuaciones. Algunos de estos problemas se referirán a medidas, otros a física y otros al comercio. Se exigirá igualmente el uso del método gráfico e ilustraciones, especialmente para la solución de las ecuaciones.

A1. ÁLGEBRA HASTA CUADRÁTICAS.

Una unidad.

Los siete primeros temas descritos en el álgebra elemental.

A2. DE CUADRÁTICAS ADELANTE.

Media unidad.

Los últimos cinco temas descritos en el álgebra elemental.

B. ÁLGEBRA SUPERIOR.

Media unidad.

Permutaciones y combinaciones en casos sencillos.

Números complejos con representación gráfica de sumas y diferencias.

Determinantes, especialmente del segundo, tercero y cuarto orden, incluyendo el uso de los menores y la solución de ecuaciones lineales.

Ecuaciones numéricas de grado superior, y la teoría de las ecuaciones tanto como sea necesario para su uso, incluyendo la regla de Descartes para los signos, y el método Horner, sin contar las funciones de Sturm ni la raíz múltiple.

C. GEOMETRÍA PLANA.

Una unidad.

Los teoremas usuales y construcción de buenos libros de texto,[1] incluyendo las propiedades generales de las figures planas rectilíneas; el círculo y medida de los ángulos; polígonos similares; áreas; polígonos regulares, y la medida del círculo.

Solución de numerosos ejercicios originales, incluyendo problemas de locomoción.

Aplicaciones para medición de líneas y superficies planas.

D. GEOMETRÍA DEL ESPACIO.

Media unidad.

Los teoremas usuales y construcción de buenos libros de texto (1), incluyendo la relación de los planos y líneas en el espacio; las propiedades y medida de los prismas, pirámides, cilindros y conos; la esfera y el triángulo esférico.

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[1] Las preguntas de la junta en geometría plana y geometría del espacio se limitarán a las proposiciones que encierra el catálogo preparado por el comité nacional de los Quince y adoptado por la Federación Americana de Maestros de Matemáticas y Ciencias Naturales, y por la Asociación de Educación Nacional. El informe del comité se publicó en *El Maestro de Matemátias*, en diciembre de 1912. Pueden obtenerse gratis copias impresas de este informe solicitándolo del Comisionado de Educación, Departamento del Interior, Wáshington, D. C.

Solución de numerosos ejercicios originales, incluyendo problemas de locomoción. Aplicaciones para medición de superficies y sólidos.

E. TRIGONOMETRÍA.

Media unidad.

Definición y relaciones de las seis funciones trigonométricas como razones; medida circular de los ángulos.

Comprobación de las fórmulas principales, especialmente para el seno, coseno y tangente, de la suma y diferencia de dos ángulos, del ángulo doble y del medio ángulo; la expresión del producto para la suma de la diferencia de dos senos o dos cosenos, etc.; y la transformación de la expresión trigonométrica por medio de estas fórmulas.

Solución de ecuaciones trigonométricas de naturaleza sencilla.

Teoría y uso de los logaritmos (independientemente de la labor que corresponde a las series infinitas).

Solución del triángulo recto y oblicuo y sus aplicaciones prácticas, incluyendo la solución del triángulo recto esférico.

F. TRIGONOMETRÍA PLANA.

Media unidad.

Este curso es igual al precedente exceptuando los temas sobre trigonometría esférica.

FÍSICA.

Una unidad.

Esta definición de los requisitos en física ha sido preparada por una comisión especial de la Junta Examinadora de Admisión en colaboración con otras asociaciones.[1]

INFORMACIÓN GENERAL.

1. El curso de física comprenderá:

(*a*) Estudio de textos especiales para adquirir idea exacta y comprensiva de esta materia. El alumno tendrá además facilidades y estímulo para consultar cualquier otra clase de literatura científica.

(*b*) Conferencias y demostraciones encaminadas a ilustrar particularmente los hechos y fenómenos físicos en sus diferentes aspectos y cualidades y en sus aplicaciones prácticas.

(*c*) Labor individual de laboratorio consistente en experimentos que requieran por lo menos treinta horas dobles de clase, contándose dos horas de trabajo de laboratorio como equivalente de una hora de labor en el cuarto de estudio. No serán menos de 30 los experimentos llevados a cabo por cada estudiante. Los que se indican en la lista a continuación se consideran los más adecuados, determinándose la labor en forma de procurar la mayor amplitud tanto en la observación como en la práctica.

El objeto de la labor de laboratorio es desarrollar los conocimientos concretos del alumno y cultivar su facultad de observación exacta y claridad de ideas y de expresión. Los ejercicios se seleccionarán con el fin de procurar ilustraciones eficaces de los principios fundamentales y de sus aplicaciones prácticas, para que el resultado sea susceptible de fácil interpretación, se encuentre en conformidad completa con la teoría y libre del disfraz de incomprensibles unidades.

No se permitirá ningún descuido en la labor; pero se evitará que el esfuerzo hacia la precisión lleve al uso de aparatos o procesos complicados que hagan obscuro el principio que se trata de demostrar.

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[1] La comisión y los trabajos que ha llevado a cabo se describen en el noveno informe anual del secretario de la Junta Examinadora de Admisión.

2. Durante todo el curso se prestará especial atención a las ilustraciones corrientes de las leyes físicas y a sus aplicaciones con referencia a la industria.

3. Para vencer las dificultades en la solución de problemas numéricos debe estimularse al estudiante a hacer uso de los principios simples de álgebra y geometría. Deben evitarse en lo posible innecesarias complicaciones matemáticas, cuidando de que el alumno no pierda de vista los hechos concretos por excesiva manipulación de símbolos.

SÍLABO.

Las siguientes materias se juzgan fundamentales y deben incluirse por consecuencia en todo curso de física elemental bien meditado. Solamente se mencionan algunas de las aplicaciones más importantes de estas materias, de manera que los maestros pueden aumentarlas ampliamente, entendiéndose que cada profesor determinará el orden que convenga mejor a sus propósitos.

I. INTRODUCCIÓN:
- *a.* Sistema métrico.
  - Medida lineal, unidades: metro, centímetro, milímetro.
  - Medida cuadrada: centímetro cuadrado.
  - Medida cúbica: centímetro cúbico, litro.
  - Masas: kilogramo, gramo.
- *b.* Volumen, peso, densidad.
- *c.* Estado de la materia: solidos, líquidos, gases.

II. MECÁNICA:

Flúidos.
- *a.* Ley de Pascal sobre la presión de los flúidos. La prensa hidráulica.
- *b.* Presión por gravedad.
  - Diversas presiones según la profundidad y densidad del líquido.
  - Presión total al fondo de un buque.
- *c.* Principio de Arquímedes.
- *d.* Gravedad específica de los sólidos y los líquidos.
- *e.* Gases: relación entre la presión y el volumen.
- *f.* Presión atmosférica, fluctuación, el barómetro, bombas para líquidos y gases.

Sólidos.
- *a.* Principio de impulsión.
  - Paralelógramo de fuerzas (resolución de fuerzas, solamente rectangular).
- *b.* Ley de Newton respecto al movimiento. Fuerza, impulso, velocidad, aceleración.
  - Aceleración uniforme del movimiento cuando la velocidad inicial o final es igual a cero.
  - Descenso de los cuerpos.
- *c.* Labor mecánica.
  - Fuerza, potencial y motriz.
  - Conservación de la fuerza.
- *d.* Maquinaria: principio de la labor aplicada a maquinaria, ventajas mecánicas, fricción, eficacia. (Úsense términos, esfuerzo y resistencia.)
  - Palanca, rueda y eje, polea, plano inclinado.
- *e.* Moción circular uniforme; ilustración de las cualidades de la fuerza centrífuga y centrípeta.
- *f.* Ley de gravitación universal.
  - Relación del peso con el volumen.
  - Centro de gravedad.
  - Estabilidad.

III. CALOR:
- *a.* Calor, una forma de fuerza motriz.
  Temperatura, escala centígrada y Fahrenheit.
- *b.* Transmisión, difusión y radiación.
- *c.* Expansión de los sólidos, coeficiente con la expansión lineal.
  Expansión de los líquidos, anormal expansión del agua.
  Expansion de los gases, ley de Charles, cero absoluto.
- *d.* Cambio de estado.
  Fusión, el punto fundente.
  Vaporización, ebullición, evaporación.
- *e.* Medida del calor, latente y específico.
- *f.* Equivalente mecánico del calor.

IV. SONIDO:
- *a.* Naturaleza y origen del sonido.
- *b.* Diapasón, volumen, calidad.
- *c.* Velocidad.
- *d.* Repercusión del sonido, eco.
- *e.* Resonancia.

V. LUZ:
- *a.* Definiciones:
  Luz, cuerpos luminosos, cuerpos iluminados, transparentes, translúcidos y opacos.
- *b.* Propagación rectilínea de la luz en un medio homogéneo, sombras, puntos transparentes en las pruebas negativas fotográficas.
- *c.* Fotometría:
  Intensidad de la luz (foco) e intensidad apreciable de iluminación.
  Ley del cuadrado inverso.
- *d.* Reflexión.
  Leyes de reflexión. Reflexión regular y difusa.
  Espejos planos y esféricos, posición y naturaleza de las imágenes.
- *e.* Refracción.
  Leyes de refracción (cualidad).
  Refracción por medio de placas, prismas y lentes.
  Lentes: Convergentes y divergentes, focos recíprocos, y foco y eje principal.
  Posición y naturaleza de las imágenes reales y virtuales formadas por lentes convergentes.
  Desviación, color y espectro.
  Aplicaciones: La cámara fotográfica, el ojo humano, el microscopio compuesto, y el telescopio.

VI. MAGNETISMO:
- *a.* Imán, permanente y temporal.
- *b.* Polaridad, atracción y repulsión magnética.
- *c.* Inducción magnética, campo magnético, línea de atracción, permeabilidad.
- *d.* La tierra como imán, circuito de atracción, declinación, depresión.

VII. ELECTRICIDAD ESTÁTICA:
- *a.* Electrización por fricción, dos clases.
- *b.* Atracción y repulsión eléctrica: electroscopios.
- *c.* Conductores y aisladores; electrización por inducción.
- *d.* Condensadores.

VIII. ELECTRICIDAD DINÁMICA:
- *a.* Simple pila voltaica.
  Acción electroquímica.
  Acción local y polarización; manera de evitar la polarización.
- *b.* Tipo de pilas (Daniel, Leclanché).

VIII. ELECTRICIDAD DINÁMICA—Continued.

- *c.* Electrolisis.
  - El amperio.
  - Electrolisis del agua, deposición de metales por medio de la electrolisis.
  - Batería de pilas.
- *d.* Electromagnetismo.
  - Campo eléctrico al rededor de una corriente.
  - Relación entre la dirección de la corriente y las líneas de fuerza magnética.
  - La campanilla eléctrica y el telégrafo.
- *e.* Resistencia.
  - El ohmio.
  - Ley óhmica.
  - El voltio.
  - Fuerza eléctrica; el vatio y la hora vatia.
- *f.* Efectos de la ignición.
  - El alambre de seguridad y la chispa eléctrica.
  - Lámparas de arco y lámparas incandescentes.
- *g.* Instrumentos de medición: galvanómetro, amperímetro, voltímetro y caja de resistencia.
- *h.* Series paralelas y conexión de pilas, lámparas, etc.
- *i.* Caída potencial en un circuito.
- *j.* Inducción electromagnética.
  - Dirección y potencia de la fuerza inductora electromotriz.
  - Simples dínamos y motores de dos polos.
  - Corriente generadora simple, alternativa y directa.
  - Transformador, carrete de inducción, teléfono.

EXPERIMENTOS.

MECÁNICA:

1. Peso de la unidad de volumen de una substancia, prisma o cilindro.
2. Principio de Arquímedes.
3. Gravedad específica de un cuerpo sólido que se hundiría en el agua.
4. Gravedad específica de un líquido, dos métodos (llenar y desplazar); o
5. Gravedad específica de un líquido, balanceando columnas.
6. Ley de Boyle.
7. Densidad del aire.
8. Ley de Hooke.
9. Fuerza de los cuerpos.
10. La palanca recta, principio de impulsión.
11. Centro de gravedad y peso de la palanca.
12. Paralelógramo de fuerzas.
13. Cuatro fuerzas en ángulos rectos sobre un plano.
14. Coeficiencia de la fricción entre los cuerpos sólidos, al mismo nivel y deslizándose en un declive.
15. Prueba eficiente de alguna maquinaria elemental, de poleas, plano inclinado, o rueda y eje.
16. Ley del péndulo.
17. Ley de moción acelerada.

CALOR:

18. El termómetro de mercurio, relación entre la presión del vapor y su temperatura.
19. Expansión lineal de los sólidos.
20. Aumento de presión del gas calentado a igual volumen; o.
21. Aumento de volumen del gas calentado a igual presión.
22. Calor para provocar la fusión del hielo.

CALOR—Continued.

23. Curva de enfriamiento a través del cambio de estado (durante la solidificación).
24 Calor para provocar la vaporización del agua.
25. Especificación de la humedad relativa a cien grados.
26. Calor específico de los sólidos.

SONIDO:

27. Velocidad del sonido
28. Extensión de la onda vibratoria.
29. Número de vibraciones del diapasón ahorquillado.

LUZ:

30. Uso del fotómetro.
31. Imágenes de los espejos planos.
32. Imágenes de los espejos convexos.
33. Imágenes de los espejos cóncavos.
34. Prueba de refracción del cristal; o
35. Prueba de refracción del agua.
36. Dimensión focal y focos recíprocos de un lente convergente.
37. Forma y tamaño de la imagen real formada por el lente.
38. Poder de amplificación del lente.
39. Construcción de un modelo de telescopio o de microscopio combinado.

MAGNETISMO Y ELECTRICIDAD:

40. Estudio del campo magnético.
41. Inducción magnética.
42. Estudio de la simple pila voltaica flúida.
43. Estudio de la pila voltaica doble.
44. Efectos magnéticos de la corriente eléctrica.
45. Electrolisis.
46. Ley de la resistencia eléctrica de los alambres, longitudes diversas, sección interior y paralela.
47. Cálculo de la resistencia eléctrica medida por el amperímetro.
48. Resistencia medida por el puente de Wheatstone.
49. Batería de resistencia; combinación de pilas.
50. Estudio de las corrientes de inducción.
51. Ensayo de la fuerza motriz o eficiencia de un pequeño motor eléctrico.

AGENDA DE LABORATORIO.

Aun cuando la Junta Examinadora de Admisión no exige la presentación de la agenda de laboratorio del candidato, como parte integrante del examen de física, demanda sin embargo un certificado del maestro especificando la labor realizada durante el curso. La agenda debe enviarse directamente a los respectivos directores del colegio o escuela científica donde el estudiante se propone ingresar.

MODELO DEL CERTIFICADO.

En lugar de la agenda de laboratorio debe presentar el candidato a la Junta Examinadora de Admisión un certificado en la forma siguiente:

....
(*Escuela.*)

....
(*Dirección de la escuela.*)

....
(*Fecha.*)

....
(*Colegio o escuela científica donde se propone ingresar el candidato.*)

Certifico que durante los años ....el señor

....

(*Nombre completo.*)

ha practicado personalmente en el laboratorio de la escuela .... y anotado en la agenda respectiva los experimentos de física prescritos.

El tiempo dedicado al trabajo de laboratorio ha sido .... períodos de .... minutos cada uno, equivalente a .... períodos de sesenta minutos.

El tiempo dedicado a conferencias y recitaciones ha sido .... períodos de .... minutos cada uno, equivalente a .... períodos de sesenta minutos.

La mitad de las horas dedicadas al laboratorio, agregadas al total de las horas dedicadas a conferencias y recitaciones, suman .... horas.[1]

(*Firma*) ....

Profesor de Física.

El profesor puede registrar aquí el grado final de .... por ciento.

QUÍMICA.

Una unidad.

Los requisitos en química fueron combinados por una comisión autorizada por la Junta Examinadora de Admisión, en abril de 1911. El informe de la comisión fué aceptado por la junta en abril de 1913.[2]

Los siguientes requisitos se han combinado en forma adaptable igualmente para los estudiantes que se preparan a continuar su educación en un colegio como para los que sólo piensan asistir a la escuela secundaria. Con este fin se dividen en dos partes.

Parte I. Contiene la lista mínima de las materias esenciales. No habrá preguntas para elección en el exámen escrito, y la solución de las que se propongan representará un sesenta por ciento del exámen total.

Parte II. Esta es suplementaria y ofrece mayor amplitud de programa en estas tres líneas principales:

A. Química descriptiva.

B. Teoría o principios químicos.

C. Aplicación de la química a las artes o al hogar.

El examen escrito de esta parte permite la elección de dos grupos de preguntas de los tres que ofrece el cuestionario. Las respuestas serán consideradas a razón de cuarenta por ciento del examen total.

El profesor podrá de esta manera dedicar su tiempo preferentemente a dos de los grupos indicados y adaptar el curso a las condiciones locales o a la inclinación personal del estudiante. Debe admitirse que no es conveniente sacrificar la perfección de la enseñanza al deseo de abarcar todas las materias nombradas en los tres grupos.

La preparación del candidato para el curso de química requiere:

1. Labor individual de laboratorio, que comprenda por lo menos cuarenta ejercicios seleccionados de una lista de sesenta o más, semejante a la que describimos más adelante.

2. Instrucción por medio de conferencias, destinada especialmente a servir de base a las preguntas sobre principios generales comprendidos en los trabajos de laboratorio del alumno.

3. Estudio de uno por lo menos de los libros de texto adoptados en las escuelas, con el objeto de que el alumno pueda adquirir una idea clara de los hechos más importantes que se relacionan con la química elemental.

PARTE I. LISTA MÍNIMA DE LOS ESTUDIOS INDISPENSABLES.

La siguiente descripción incluye los estudios principales, comunes en su mayor parte a todos los textos elementales y manuales de laboratorio, en la forma en que se cultivan en la clase y en el laboratorio.

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[1] La junta exige por lo menos 120 horas de labor en este curso.

[2] La relación de los trabajos de la comisión se encontrará en el décimotercio informe anual del secretario de la Junta Examinadora de Admisión, págs. 6-17.

Preparación, propiedades y uso de los siguientes elementos: hidrógeno, oxígeno, nitrógeno atmosférico, cloro; propiedades y uso del carbón (incluyendo la forma alotrópica), súlfuro, sodio, cinc, hierro, cobre y oro. Tratándose de los metales mencionados debe discutirse la acción del aire, del agua, y de los ácidos en disolución.

Preparación (según uno de los métodos), propiedades y uso de los compuestos siguientes: Ácido clorhídrico, cloruro de sodio, cloruro de plata; bióxido de súlfuro, ácido sulfúrico (preparado por contacto), ácido sulfhídrico; fósfato de calcio, bióxido de carbono, incluyendo sus relaciones con el proceso vital; monóxido de carbono; carbonato de calcio, óxido de calcio, hidróxido de calcio, amoníaco; ácido nítrico (incluyendo su acción sobre el cobre), óxido nítrico; nitrato de soda, nitrato de potasio; y las propiedades y uso del carbonato de soda y del ácido de carbonato de soda.

Preparación, propiedades y uso de varias substancias orgánicas comunes, como productos de petróleo, alcohol etilo, ácido acético, glucosas, azúcar de caña y almidón.

Las propiedades de los elementos y compuestos que se estudien serán aquellos característicos o que se refieran a algún uso importante, doméstico o industrial especialmente.

Estudio detallado del aire, incluyendo el nitrógeno, oxígeno, bióxido de carbono y vapor de agua; el agua y sus propiedades; las impurezas del agua con relación a la salud, su tratamiento por ebullición, destilación y filtración.

Simples ejemplos de acción química, por combinacion directa, descomposición, cambio de un elemento en un compuesto por otro elemento, descomposición doble; las radículas como unidades para la acción química; orden de la actividad de los elementos metálicos comunes; ácidos, bases, neutralización, y sales; identificación de algunas substancias por medio de sus reacciones y propiedades características; suma de la acción química ilustrada por uno o dos experimentos.

Las leyes de Boyle y de Charles respecto a cantidades, con sencillos problemas de cada una por separado; ejemplos y exposición de las leyes de conservación de las masas, conservación de la fuerza, y definición de sus proporciones; ilustración del ley de proporciones múltiples; reacción del peso de los elementos; exposición elemental de la teoría atómica y sus relaciones con la ley de proporciones definidas; significado y uso del peso atómico.

Valencia, en su forma más elemental; nomenclatura ilustrada por simples compuestos inorgánicos; uso de las fórmulas para construcción y resolución de las ecuaciones; ejercicios sencillos de aritmética química, como el peso de los átomos, y cálculo (recibiendo la fórmula para los compuestos), del porcentaje de la composición, del peso de las substancias para reacciones químicas, y del volumen del gas como resultante de una reacción química (dándose igualmente por el profesor el peso de un litro de gas en condiciones para el experimento).

Cambio de fuerza como resultante de la acción química; combustión (en forma elemental); efectos de la concentración ilustrados por combustión del aire y del oxígeno; ignición; oxidación por medio del oxígeno y reducción por medio del hidrógeno y del carbono; catalisis, ilustrada con uno o dos ejemplos sencillos de la acción por contacto; solución, solución saturada, grado de solubilidad; separación de los sólidos de la solución, precipitación incluyendo cristalización (no cristalografía); y electrolisis ilustrada por uno o dos ejemplos.

Las expresiones técnicas químicas deben definirse y explicarse de manera que se encuentre el alumno en condiciones de ilustrar y aplicar las ideas que de allí se desprenden. No se trata de formar tema separado de estudio con la parte teórica, que sólo debe enseñarse hasta donde sea necesario para la correlación y explicación de los hechos experimentales.

El fin de todo maestro será hacer patente la importancia esencial de la química en la moderna civilización.

PARTE II.—REQUISITOS SUPLEMENTARIOS.

A. Parte descriptiva.—Los rasgos característicos principales en física y en química, la preparación y examen de los siguientes *elementos:* oxígeno (ozono), hidrógeno, carbono, nitrógeno, cloro, bromo, yodo, súlfuro, fósforo, sodio, aluminio, cinc, hierro, plomo, estaño, y cobre.

Las cualidades características principales en física y química, la preparación y examen de algunos *compuestos* importantes, especialmente los mencionados en la primera parte y además las siguientes substancias: peróxido de hidrógeno, óxido nitroso, peróxido de nitrógeno; ácido hipocloroso y una sal; ácido sulfuroso y sulfito de sodio; sulfato y cloruro de calcio; sulfato de aluminio y alumbre; sulfato y cloruro de cinc; sulfato ferroso, cloruro ferroso, cloruro férrico, óxido férrico e hidróxido férrico; acetato y carbonato de plomo; litargirio y minio de plomo; sulfato de cobre; los cloruros de mercurio (no se requiere preparación); y el nitrato de plata.

Con respecto de los elementos y compuestos anotados en ambas partes, primera y segunda, se requiere estudio más profundo y detallado para la segunda parte.

B. Elementos.—Agrupación natural de los elementos; resolventes y solubilidad de los gases; líquidos y sólidos, saturación; corrección del volumen del gas; ley de proporciones múltiples; la teoría de los átomos como interpretación de las leyes químicas fundamentales; dos ejemplos ilustrando la ley de Gay-Lussac del volumen combinado; las hipótesis de Avogadro, derivación de la molécula de hidrógeno como H2, proporción entre el peso del volumen de gases análogos y el peso molecular; los aspectos más sencillos de la teoría de la disociación electrolítica hasta donde sea necesario para explicar los efectos de la electrolisis, neutralización y reacción de soluciones de sulfato de cobre y carbonato de sodio en papel tornasol; y reversión de la acción química.

C. Aplicaciones.—En el procedimiento de las materias arriba indicadas debe prestarse especial atención a las aplicaciones industriales y domésticas más usuales de las substancias descritas. Deben considerarse detalladamente, además, los tópicos siguientes: procedimientos químicos con el agua para fines industriales o para lavandería; jabones y polvos para lavandería; combustible común; manejo de estufas y hornos caseros; clase de alimentos en general; metalurgia sencilla del hierro y del acero; electrolisis aplicada a la galvanización y refinación de metales; y química simple de los motores de combustión interna.

Las preguntas del examen se concentrarán en las materias indicadas, entendiéndose que la Junta Examinadora de Admisión no aconseja que la instrucción se limite a estos puntos.

En caso de que el tiempo señalado para el estudio fuera mayor que el que se calcula por término medio, puede agregar el profesor mayor suma de enseñanza química, teórica o descriptiva, o algunas aplicaciones interesantes sobre temas de utilidad práctica, como: eliminación de las manchas de grasa, orín, tinta o moho; el vidrio; cemento; aleaciones típicas; metalurgia del cinc y del aluminio; abonos importantes; fotografía; compuestos orgánicos como la madera, el alcohol, el éter, el cloroformo, el tetracloruro de carbono, el bisúlfuro de carbono y los explosivos.

EXPERIMENTOS ADECUADOS EN QUÍMICA.[1]

1. Calefacción de las substancias al contacto de la atmósfera.
2. Variación en el peso del metal por efecto de la calefacción atmosférica.
3. Productos obtenidos por la calefacción del "precipitado rojo."
4. Preparación y propiedades del oxígeno.
5. Peso de un litro de oxígeno.
6. Influencia recíproca de los metales y ácidos.
7. Preparación y propiedades del hidrógeno.

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[1] Pueden substituirse estos experimentos por cualesquiera otros de naturaleza análoga.

8. Reducción del óxido de cobre.
9. Peso equivalente del cinc (o magnesio) por el desalojamiento del hidrógeno.
10. Destilación del agua.
11. Poder resolvente del agua.
12. Agua de cristalización.
13. Especificación del agua de cristalización.
14. Preparación y propiedades del cloro.
15. Preparación y propiedades del cloruro de hidrógeno.
16. Acción del sodio sobre el agua, y especificación de los productos formados.
17. Neutralización del hidróxido de sodio con el ácido hidroclórico.
18. Procedimiento de concentración del ácido hidroclórico por medio del análisis volumétrico.
19. Peso combinado del cinc y del cloruro (o del cinc y del oxígeno).
20. Ensayos de combustión.
21. Ensayo con tres ácidos comunes.
22. Preparación de las sales solubles.
23. Preparación de las sales insolubles.
24. Punto de ebullición para las soluciones.
25. Punto de congelación de las soluciones.
26. Preparación del cloruro de sodio puro.
27. Reacciones incompletas.
28. Formas del sulfuro.
29. Preparación y propiedades del bióxido de sulfuro.
30. Preparación y propiedades del sulfuro de hidrógeno.
31. Preparación de los sulfuros metálicos.
32. Composición del volumen de la atmósfera.
33. Preparación y propiedades del amoníaco.
34. Preparación y propiedades del ácido nítrico.
35. Preparación y propiedades del óxido nítrico.
36. Preparación y propiedades del óxido nitroso.
37. Preparación del nitrato de potasio (cristalización).
38. Preparación y propiedades del bromo.
39. Preparación y propiedades del yodo.
40. Comparación de los ácidos halógenos.
41. Preparación del carbón vegetal.
42. Propiedades del carbono.
43. Preparación y propiedades del bióxido de carbono.
44. Aguas alcalinas.
45. Peso molecular del bióxido de carbono.
46. Preparación y propiedades del monóxido de carbono.
47. Preparación y propiedades de la cal.
48. Ensayos del nitrato de cobalto.
49. Reintegración relativa de los metales comunes (serie electroquímica).
50. Equivalente de la plata.
51. Ensayos de las sales de hierro.
52. Reducción del cloruro férrico a ferroso.
53. Oxidación del cloruro ferroso a férrico.
54. Separación cualitativa del plomo, plata y mercurio.
55. Fermentación.
56. Preparación del acetato de etilo.
57. Fabricación del jabón.
58. Prueba de la leche por nutrición.
59. Determinación del bióxido de carbono en la atmósfera.
60. Mezcla explosiva de la gasolina y el aire.

AGENDA DE LABORATORIO.

La Junta Examinadora de Admisión no exige la agenda de laboratorio como parte integrante del examen de química, pero requiere la presentación de un certificado del profesor describiendo la labor del candidato durante el curso. La agenda debe enviarse directamente a los directores del colegio o escuela científica donde el alumno desea ingresar, y contendrá:

1. Una breve descripción escrita por el mismo alumno dando cuenta de los materiales y aparatos usados en cada experimento, delineando los aparatos siempre que esto sea posible.
2. Relación original por el alumno de los fenómenos que hubiere observado durante el curso de cada experimento.
3. Exposición de las conclusiones más importantes que se deduzcan de los fenómenos observados.

Se insiste especialmente sobre el hecho de que la agenda debe reproducir las ideas y apreciaciones particulares de cada alumno, demostrando así su habilidad para reconocer y expresar en debida forma la importancia del trabajo que hubiere realizado. Las explicaciones copiadas de los libros de texto o manuales no se consideran satisfactorias. La agenda debe contener también un índice de los experimentos.

CERTIFICADO DEL MAESTRO DE LABORATORIO.

En lugar de presentar su agenda de laboratorio a la Junta Examinadora de Admisión, debe mostrar el candidato un certificado en la forma siguiente:

....
(Escuela.)

....
(Dirección de la escuela.)

....
(Fecha.)

....
(Colegio o escuela científica donde se propone ingresar el candidato.)

Certifico que durante los años.......................................el señor.
....
(Nombre completo.)
ha practicado personalmente en el laboratorio de la escuela .... y anotado en la agenda respectiva .... los experimentos de química prescritos semejantes a los indicados por la Junta Examinadora de Admisión a los Colegios y que dicha agenda constituye una exacta y original anotación de sus experimentos.

El tiempo dedicado al trabajo de laboratorio ha sido de .... períodos de .... minutos cada uno, equivalente a .... períodos de sesenta minutos.

La mitad de las horas dedicadas al laboratorio, agregadas al total de las horas dedicadas a conferencias y recitaciones, suma .... horas (1).

(Firma) ....

Profesor de Química.

BOTÁNICA.

Una unidad.

Los requisitos en botánica están basados en el informe del comité del departamento de ciencias de la Asociación Nacional de Educación, y amplificados por un comité de la Sociedad de Morfología de las Plantas, incorporada ahora a la Sociedad Botánica de América.

El siguiente curso incluye, en sus divisiones principales, tópicos sobre las materias que los mejores maestros juzgan fundamentales. La sucesión regular de estas materias se considera conveniente, sin dar mayor importancia a este punto y dejando al criterio del profesor el método de enseñanza. Si especiales circunstancias, como la dificultad de obtener materiales, etc., estorbaran los estudios del curso en todos sus detalles, permitiendo, sin embargo, el conocimiento completo de la materia por medio de equivalentes, sería preferible omitir los tópicos de menor entidad en vez de intentar abrazarlos todos superficialmente. Para responder a esta posibilidad incluirá siempre el examen escrito cierto número de preguntas alternativas.

La labor de laboratorio por el alumno es parte muy esencial de la instrucción y se le dedicará el doble de tiempo por lo menos que a las recitaciones. Las anotaciones de la agenda irán acompañadas del diseño exacto de las plantas y de expresiva y precisa descripción.

La Junta Examinadora de Admisión no exige la presentación de la agenda de laboratorio como parte del examen de botánica, pero da por sentado que será enviada directamente a los directores respectivos del colegio o escuela científica donde el candidato se propone ingresar. Requiere, en cambio, un certificado del profesor especificando la labor del alumno durante el curso. Estos certificados en blanco pueden obtenerse del secretario de la junta.

El curso completo consiste en dos partes:

PARTE I.—*Principios generales de (A) Anatomía y Morfología, (B) Fisiología y (C) Ecología.*

A. Anatomía y Morfología:

Semillas. Cuatro tipos (dicotiledóneos, con endospermo y sin esta sustancia, un monocotiledóneo y un gymnospermus); estructura y partes análogas. Fondo de nutrición; especificación experimental de su naturaleza y valor. Fenómenos de germinación y crecimiento del embrión dentro de la semilla (incluyendo el brote, posición y despliegue de sus partes).

Vástagos. Anatomía general de un vástago típico, incluyendo la relación que existe entre la hoja, el tallo y la raíz, la disposición de las hojas y brotes en el tallo, y las desviaciones simétricas provocadas por ligero arreglo. Renuevos y formación de nuevas hojas y tallos; renuevos de invierno especialmente.

Metamórfosis en la formación de vástagos y tallos. Estructura general y distribución de los tejidos principales de un vástago; crecimiento anual; desarrollo de la corteza y hojas.

Raíces. Anatomía general de una raíz típica; posición y origen de las raíces secundarias; zona filamentosa, punto superior, punto de crecimiento.

Metamórfosis especiales de la raíz. Estructura general y distribución de sus tejidos principales.

Flores. Estructura típica de las flores, especialmente de los óvulos y el polen; diferentes funciones de sus partes.

Estudio comparativo morfológico de cuatro de los tipos más marcados, con diagramas transversales y longitudinales.

Frutos. Estructura típica de los frutos. Estudio comparativo morfológico de cuatro tipos principales.

El estudio comparativo morfológico de flores y frutos puede posponerse ventajosamente hasta el fin de la segunda parte, tomándose entonces con la clasificación de angiospermus.

Células. Citoplasma, núcleo, cavidad de la savia, ruda muraria.

El estudio de las células no debe dilatarse como su posición en este bosquejo parece indicar. Debe iniciarse, por el contrario, a la vez que el estudio de los vástagos y raíces y continuarse a través de todas las materias. Aun cuando el estudio especial de la célula, asociado a las materias fisiológicas mencionadas en B, es suficiente para dar idea de su estructura, la labor esencial microscópica se encaminará a la clasificación y distribución de los tejidos principales.

B. Fisiología:

Acción del agua sobre las plantas: *absorción, osmosis, vías de transfusión, transpiración, turgencia y su valor mecánico, plasmolysis. Formación de la fécula según la clorofila, la luz y el bióxido de carbono; evolución del oxígeno,* observación de los granos de fecula.

Respiración: *Necesidad del oxígeno para el desarrollo, evolución del bióxido de carbono.*

Digestión: *Digestión de la fécula con diastasa*, y su papel en la transmutación de los alimentos.

Sensibilidad: *Geotropismo, heliotropismo e hidropismo.*

Desarrollo: *Su localización en las plantas más elevadas; crecimiento de los tallos; sus relaciones con la temperatura.*

Fecundación: *Reproducción vegetal y sexual.*

Aun cuando se hayan detallado en un solo grupo todas las materias fisiológicas para mayor facilidad de información, no significa esto que deban estudiarse independientemente de la anatomía y morfología. Al contrario, deben tomarse a la vez que el estudio de la estrúctura de las plantas y estudiarse en el momento que se desarrolla el proceso aludido, para mayor claridad en la explicación. Por ejemplo, la fotosíntesis se estudiará con el proceso de las hojas y de la transpiración, en tanto que el estudio de la digestion completa mejor la germinación, la absorción forma parte del proceso de las raíces, y así sucesivamente. El estudiante procurará demostrar por medio de experimentos el proceso fundamental que se expresa arriba en itálicas.

C. Ecología:

Modificaciones o metamórfosis de las partes para producir funciones especiales.

Diseminación.

Fecundación.

Efectos de la luz sobre el tejido colorante.

Especiales habitat: mesofíticas, hidrofitas, halofitas, jerofitas; trepadoras, epífitas, parásitas y saprofitas, e insectívoras.

La ecología, especialmente las materias indicadas en las partes cuarta y quinta, no debe estudiarse de manera independiente sino asociada, lo mismo que la fisiología, a la estructura de las plantas con la cual está en relación más íntima, como por ejemplo, la fecundación con las flores, la diseminación con la semilla, etc., etc. La quinta parte puede asociarse con provecho a la sección G de la Parte II.

En conexión con esta parte es muy importante y aun indispensable la labor en el campo para muchas de las materias señaladas: aun cuando pueden ilustrarse también los estudios con plantas de invernadero, fotografías, y ejemplares de museo. Se recomienda especialmente que cierta labor sistemática en el campo forme parte integrante de este curso, determinando su importancia en combinación con el trabajo de laboratorio. Debe combatirse con particularidad toda tendencia a conjeturar y toda obscuridad en la ecología.

PARTE II.—*Historia natural de los grupos de plantas y su clasificación.*

Resumen comprensivo de los grandes grupos naturales de plantas, basado en el estudio detallado de la estructura, reproducción y adaptación a las condiciones climatológicas, de uno o dos tipos de cada grupo; suplementado con estudio más sumario de las demás formas de dichos grupos.

El material viviente requerido para este estudio, puede reemplazarse con plantas de invernadero y aun con buenos fotografías, usándose en combinación con un buen libro de texto. Deben anotarse las analogías especiales de los diferentes grupos, aun cuando no es necesario que se estudien en detalle.

En general, esta parte del curso requiere menor atención a los grupos pequeños o de poca importancia, prestándose mayor y progresiva aplicación a los grupos principales.

Debe seleccionarse de la siguiente lista de tipos recomendados o sus equivalentes:

A. ALGAS. Pleurococáceas, sphaerella, spirogyra, vauqueria, fucos, nemalion (o polysiphonia o coleochaete).

B. HONGOS. Bacteriáceas, rizopos, sacaromices, puccinia, ustilagíneas y setas.

Los bacteriáceas y sacaromices tienen grandes desventajas para un estudio de esta clase, pero su importancia económica justifica su introducción.

C. LIQUENES. Fisa, o parmelia o úsnea.

D. PARIETARIAS. En hepática, rádula o porella o marchantia.
En musgos, mnium o polytrichum o funaria.

E. HELECHOS. En filíceas, aspiditas o su equivalente, incluyendo, por supuesto, el protallo.
En equisitáceas, equiseto.
En licopodeáceas, eicopodio y selaginela o isoete.

F. GINOSPERMOS. Pino o su equivalente.

G. ANGIOSPERMOS. Un monocotiledóneo y un dicotiledóneo que deben estudiarse con referencia a la analogía de sus partes con las de los grupos mencionados arriba; y junto con las plantas que representan las principales subdivisiones y familias de angiospermos.

El estudio de clasificación incluirá las divisiones elementales de los grupos indicados, basado en la comparación de los diversos tipos con otro material vivo o de conservatorio. Debe incluirse igualmente el estudio de las principales subdivisiones de los angiospermos agrupadas según el sistema Engler y Prantl.

Sería muy de desear el estudio de manuales para la clasificación de las flores, aun cuando no se considera esencial en este curso. No debe intentarse con detrimento de ninguna otra parte del programa, pero puede seguirse como estudio voluntario por todos aquellos aficionados a este ramo. No debe limitarse a aprender solamente los nombres de las plantas sino atender así mismo a su clasificación.

No se exige ni se recomienda la preparación de un herbario; pero puede formarse como labor voluntaria por los estudiantes que tengan gusto por las colecciones. No debe consistir, sin embargo, en una simple acumulación de especies, sino representar alguna idea concreta de asociación de plantas, de morfología, distinción de ciertos grupos, etc., etc.

GEOGRAFÍA.

Una unidad.

Los requisitos en geografía corresponden al informe del comité de geografía física del departamento de ciencias de la Asociación Nacional de Educación.

El siguiente programa incluye solamente los principios esenciales de geografía física que se estudiarán en la clase y en el laboratorio. Los temas son, en su mayor parte, comunes a los libros de texto más perfeccionados, aun cuando no se pueda contar todavía con un manual adecuado de laboratorio. El orden en que se ofrecen los temas no es esencial; pero es conveniente, sin embargo, estudiar en lo posible las materias en el orden señalado.

PROGRAMA.

Teniendo en cuenta que el estudio de geografía física en las escuelas secundarias debe incluir: el globo terrestre, el océano, la atmósfera y la topografía del terreno, se ha arreglado el siguiente programa que abraza estas materias amplias y diversas, y para el cual deberá alargarse proporcionalmente el tiempo de estudio en el orden indicado:

El Globo Terrestre—
- Forma de la Tierra; su comprobación, consecuencias de esta forma.
- Tamaño: como se mide la Tierra; efectos del tamaño.
- Rotación: carácter del movimiento; latitud, longitud y espacio.
- Revolución: velocidad, órbita, dirección, y consecuencias.
- Magnetismo: declinación, polos, variación.

El Océano—
- Forma, división y propiedades generales del océano.
- Profundidad, densidad y temperatura de sus aguas.
- Propiedades peculiares del fondo del océano.
- Movimiento de sus aguas.
  - Olas: causa y efecto.
  - Corrientes: causa, prueba de la causa, corrientes importantes, efecto de las corrientes.
  - Mareas: carácter del movimiento, causa y dirección de las mareas, remolinos.
- Papel que desempeña el océano.
- Clase e importancia de la línea del litoral.

La Atmósfera—
- Composición y objeto de la atmósfera.
- Instrumentos usados para el estudio de la atmósfera.
- Temperatura.
  - Causas y variaciones de la temperatura atmosférica.
  - Mapas isotermales del globo en enero y julio, dedicando especial estudio a la línea isoterma de los hemisferios norte y sur, a la línea ecuatorial y polar a la zona isoterma más poblada etc., etc.

La Atmósfera—Continued.
- Presión atmosférica.
    - Medida de la presión.
    - Utilidad de la presión para determinar la altura.
    - Sus relaciones con la temperatura.
    - Estudio de la línea isobárica en el mapa climatológico de los Estados Unidos.
    - Distribución de la presión atmosférica en el globo durante los meses de enero y julio.
    - Relación entre los isobáricos y los isotermos.
- Circulación de la atmósfera.
    - Vientos, su división, dirección, causas y efectos.
- Humedad.
    - Causas, forma, medida, precipitación.
- Tempestades.
    - Dirección y carácter de las tempestades en los Estados Unidos.
    - Temperatura diaria en las diversas estaciones.
    - Relación de las tempestades con las condiciones climatológicas en general.
    - Relación del tiempo con el clima.

Topografía de la Tierra—
- Varios aspectos de la tierra firme comparados con el océano.
- Distribución de la Tierra.
- Mapa de su topografía.
- Cambios en su forma, efectos de elevación y depresión.
- Llanuras.
    - Diversas clases de llanuras.
    - Sus aspectos característicos.
    - Desarrollo de las llanuras.
    - Litoral llano en ciertas zonas orientales de los Estados Unidos.
    - Llanuras de aluvión, su formación y su importancia.
    - Relación de las condiciones de vida con las diferentes clases de llanuras.
- Mesetas.
    - Mesetas de formación reciente.
    - Mesetas regulares.
    - Mesetas de formación antigua.
    - Mesetas agrietadas.
- Montañas.
    - Montañas volcánicas.
    - Montañas plegadas.
    - Montañas de cupula.
    - Montañas macizas.
- Volcanes.
    - Su distribución.
    - Carácter de los volcanes en sus diferentes grados de actividad.
- Ríos.
    - Historia de los ríos: trabajos en sus orillas, topografía de los valles en diversas altitudes, lagos y fuentes.
    - Ríos revividos.
    - Valles de inundación.
    - Grandes estanques de desagüe en los Estados Unidos.
- Ventisqueros.
    - Capas de hielo existentes en la actualidad.
    - Clase de ventisqueros.
    - Labor que desempeñan los ventisqueros.
    - Caracteres especiales del área glacial en el norte de los Estados Unidos.

Resumen:

Relación de la raza humana, plantas y animales con el clima, formación del terreno y áreas oceánicas.

El programa que acabamos de diseñar presenta solamente las materias principales, indicando en cierto modo el rumbo que se ha de seguir. Cada una de estas materias se tratará en sus relaciones ocasionales con las demás, insistiendo tanto como sea posible sobre la influencia que ejerce la índole del terreno sobre las condiciones de ivida.

La preparación del candidato incluirá:

El estudio de uno de los principales libros de texto de las escuelas secundarias en geografía física, pues que es posible obtener grandes conocimientos de los principios esenciales y de hechos bien seleccionados que ilustren tales principios.

Labor individual de laboratorio, que comprenda por lo menos cuarenta ejercicios seleccionados de una lista semejante a la que indicamos arriba. La tercera parte o la mitad del estudio de la clase se dedicará a ejercicios de laboratorio, que se reemplazarán durante el otoño y la primavera con excursiones por el campo.

EJERCICIOS ADECUADOS PARA ESTE CURSO.[1]

El Globo Terrestre:

Diseñar un diagrama mostrando la inclinación del eje de la tierra, los efectos de un eje de ángulos rectos, y paralelo al plano de la órbita. *1.*

Causas del día y de la noche, y extensión de la luz solar sobre la superficie. *1.*

Diseñar un diagrama mostrando la posición de la tierra, la luna y el sol en las diversas fases de la luna. *1.*

Diseñar una serie de líneas en alguna escala adoptada, para mostrar la circunferencia y el diámetro de la tierra, y la distancia que separa de Nueva York a algunas ciudades principales. *1.*

Determinar la latitud, la línea sur y norte, y la línea meridiana.

El Océano:

Estudio de los mapas corrientes del océano. *1.*

Estudio de la carta de marear. *1.*

Estudio de los diversos aspectos de la línea del litoral.

Estudio de la situación de los faros, estaciones de salvamento y de las grandes ciudades en relación con las playas meridionales del Atlántico. *1.*

Estudio del mapa del globo, mostrando las mayores alturas en tierra y las mayores profundidades en el mar. *1.*

Explicación de las rutas marítimas preferidas a través del Atlántico y del Pacífico. *1.*

La Atmósfera:

Especificación de la altitud de las colinas por medio del barómetro. *1.*

Especificación del punto de rocío. *1.*

Comparación de la temperatura de enero y julio a 40°. de latitud norte y sur. *2.*

Posición y desviación de la línea ecuatorial y polar. *2.*

Comparación de la temperatura en tierra y sobre el agua en las diversas estaciones. *2.*

Estudio de la dirección de los vientos según las estaciones y comparación con la presión atmosférica. *2.*

Preparación de mapas isotermales e isobáricos en ciertas fechas señaladas. *2.*

Encontrar la proporción media de la dirección de los vientos en los alrededores de un centro tempestuoso. *1.*

Preparar mapas completos del tiempo en épocas señaladas. *2.*

Estudio de la distribución de las lluvias y de la niebla en los alrededores de un centro tempestuoso. *1.*

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[1] Las cifras itálicas indican el valor que se calcula a los ejercicios para alcanzar el número requerido de 40.

La Atmósfera—Continued.

Predecir las condiciones del tiempo en época determinada. *1.*

Encontrar la proporción media y la dirección del movimiento en los centros tempestuosos. *1.*

Estudiar las condiciones de la "onda fría" y del viento nordeste. *1.*

La Tierra:

Comparación de las áreas con la escala. *1.*

Dibujar secciones interiores de mapas perfilados según la escala. *4.*

Sombrear secciones interiores de un mapa, cambiando después las sombras en perfiles. *2.*

Describir los modelos por escrito. *4.*

Describir por escrito el dibujo y acompañar la descripción con el mapa. *2.*

Delinear el perfil de un río. *1.*

Dibujar el mapa de desagüe de los Estados Unidos. *1.*

Escribir la descripción de determinados mapas que ilustran las diferentes formas del terreno. *4.*

Proyectar un viaje y describir el país que se desea recorrer. *1.*

Colocar ilustraciones de formas comunes de terreno sobre determinado perfil de mapa. *1.*

Describir en detalle cuatro excursiones de otoño. *8.*

Describir en detalle cuatro excursiones de primavera. *4.*

Los ejercicios prácticos del candidato se distribuirán de la manera siguiente: Geografía matemática 5, océano 5, atmósfera 12, y tierra 18. En conexión con ellos debe preparar el alumno una agenda en que estén anotados con fechas sus progresos y el resultado de sus ejercicios de laboratorio. Este libro contendrá así mismo un índice de las materias y constituirá un verídico y original registro de la labor del estudiante.

Aun cuando la Junta Examinadora de Admisión no exige la presentación de la agenda de laboratorio como parte integrante del examen de geografía, espera, sin embargo, que dicha agenda se remita directamente a la autoridad respectiva del colegio o escuela científica donde el candidato se propone ingresar, y requiere la entrega de un certificado del profesor sobre el trabajo de laboratorio del alumno. Pueden obtenerse certificados en blanco para este objeto del secretario de la junta.

ZOOLOGÍA.

Una unidad.

Los requisitos en zoología corresponden al informe del comité nombrado por la Sociedad Americana de Zoologistas.

El programa siguiente incluye los principios de zoología indispensables para el estudio general de esta ciencia. No se trata de determinar aquí el orden de estudio para estas materias; esto queda al criterio del profesor y al sistema empleado en los libros de texto.

1. Historia natural en general, incluyendo la estructura externa general de los vertebrados e invertebrados más comunes, con relación a la adaptación, la historia de su vida, su clasificación geográfica, sus relaciones con otras plantas y animales, y sus relaciones económicas, tan extensamente como lo permita la posibilidad de obtener representantes de ciertos grupos en las comarcas donde se sigue el curso.

Los tipos indicados son: mamíferos, aves, lagartos, serpientes, tortugas, lagartijas acuáticas, ranas, tiburones, peces espinosos, almejas, caracoles, estrellas de mar, lombrices de tierra, planarias, hidras, anémonas de mar, y paramecios. Con respecto de los artrópodos, debe familiarizarse el alumno con las clases comunes de crustáceos, arañas, miriápodos e insectos que representen por lo menos cinco familias diferentes.

Los exámenes sobre animales comunes con relación a las clases citadas deben completarse por lecturas que proporcionen detalles sobre historia natural. No se espera que haya mucho tiempo disponible para llevar una agenda detallada de la labor de historia natural, y más bien este trabajo se hará en forma de demostraciones de laboratorio; pero siempre que sea posible se harán dibujos y notas en este curso. La agenda contendrá por lo menos el dibujo de la estructura externa de cuatro animales que no se hayan estudiado en la sección 3, de preferencia dos insectos, un molusco y un segundo vertebrado.

2. Clasificación de los animales en clases principales y secundarias (exceptuando las modernas subdivisiones de los gusanos) y los grandes rasgos característicos de estos grupos. Tratándose de insectos y vertebrados, los rasgos característicos de las familias principales.

La clasificación se llevará a cabo por medio de estudios prácticos como, por ejemplo, acostumbrar al alumno a reconocer las diferentes clases de animales y a indicar sus rasgos taxonómicos. La definición de las especies, sus diversos caracteres y los mayores grupos se desarrollará en labor práctica y descriptiva haciendo uso de algunos tipos principales de insectos vertebrados.

3. El plan general de la estructura interna y externa de un vertebrado (pez o rana de preferencia) comparado con el cuerpo humano, sin entrar en detalles anatómicos; un artrópodo (de preferencia un decápodo); un anélido (lombriz o nereida); un coelenterado (hidra o anémona de mar); un protozono (ciliado y amiba siempre que sea posible). Si no fuera posible obtener en la localidad los tipos arriba indicados podrían substituirse con un segundo vertebrado, un insecto, un molusco y un equinodermo. El estudio de los tejidos, que se deja a voluntad del alumno,[1] debe llevarse a cabo primero a la simple vista, en estructura semejante, por ejemplo, a la pierna de una rana, observándose después con el microscopio para determinar las relaciones de la substancia celular e intercelular en el epitelio y el cartílago, y si fuere posible entre los demás tejidos. Las funciones de los tejidos principales y su posición en el cuerpo de un vertebrado deben también indicarse.

4. (i) La fisiología general de los tipos arriba mencionados, incluyendo las propiedades esenciales de la digestión, absorción, circulación, respiración, metabolismo celular, secreción, excreción, y funciones del sistema nervioso, estableciendo la comparación elemental con los caracteres esenciales de la fisiología humana. Las demostraciones y experimentos sobre la fisiología humana según los libros de texto de las high-schools, deben estudiarse o recordarse en conexión con la discusión de sus funciones principales, en caso de que no se hubieran presentado de antemano de manera satisfactoria en el estudio de la fisiología elemental. La estructura y sus funciones deben estudiarse en combinación siempre que sea practicable.

(ii) Comparación del proceso general de la vida en los animales y plantas (en conexión con la botánica si la zoología se estudia primero).

5. Caracteres generales de la reproducción asexual de un protozono (de preferencia un paramecio); generación alternativa en los hidroides; reproducción y regeneración de la hidra; los caracteres externos más comunes del desarrollo embriológico de las ranas y los peces; y, como estudio voluntario, debe explicarse y definirse brevemente la naturaleza celular general de los gérmenes celulares (no los centros celulares ni sus funciones) la fecundación y la división de las células para desarrollar los óvulos. Deben también indicarse las peculiaridades más interesantes del desarrollo en los demás tipos de animales que se estudien.

6. Demostrar la prueba más resaltante de las analogías que sugieren la idea de evolución entre ciertos grupos, como los decápodos, los insectos y los vertebrados. Deben indicarse igualmente algunos hechos sobre la lucha por la existencia, la adaptación al ambiente, las transformaciones individuales, y la influencia de la selección en el hombre, pero sin intentar la discusión de los factores ni de la teoría de la evolución.

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[1] Los estudios que se dejan a voluntad del alumno son apreciables en el curso de zoología de las mejores *high-schools*, pero no se exigirán en el examen.

7. (*Estudios voluntarios.*) Algunos hechos principales sobre los descubrimientos biológicos que marcan períodos y sobre la historia de algunos naturalistas eminentes como Darwin, Huxley, Pasteur y Agassiz.

El programa indicado para el curso de zoología general debe desarrollarse sobre la base de estudios de laboratorio bajo una dirección bien definida. Puede suplementarse con la lectura detenida de un libro de texto moderno y elemental de zoología general. Por lo menos las dos terceras partes del tiempo deben dedicarse a estudios prácticos de laboratorio. Si no se hubieran llevado a cabo estudios suficientemente extensos de zoología natural durante el curso anterior en las high-schools, debe estimularse a los alumnos a hacer alguna labor suplementaria en el ramo de historia natural. El candidato debe preparar, en conexión con su labor práctica, una agenda con el diseño de las principales estructuras estudiadas anatómicamente (sec. 3), y los dibujos mencionados en historia natural (sec. 1), cuidadosamente clasificados, y con notas sobre las explicaciones y descripción de los dibujos con sus fechas, acompañadas del índice respectivo.

Aun cuando la Junta Examinadora de Admisión no requiere la presentación de la agenda de laboratorio, espera que dicha agenda se envíe directamente a las autoridades dirigentes del colegio o escuela científica donde el candidato se propone ingresar, y exige la entrega de un certificado del maestro especificando la labor de laboratorio del alumno. Estos certificados en blanco pueden obtenerse del secretario de la junta.

DIBUJO.

Una unidad.

Este curso está basado en los requisitos de ingreso para el dibujo, conforme a los catálogos de los colegios y universidades representadas por la Junta Examinadora de Admisión.

La preparación del alumno en la clase de dibujo debe dirigirse principalmente a educarle con respecto a la observación atenta y la exacta y definida representación de la forma, sin intentar la expresión o las gradaciones del color.

El candidato debe encontrarse capaz de dibujar correctamente y con líneas firmes, simples formas de perspectiva correcta según el tamaño del plano del dibujo, ya sea éste grande o pequeño. Se recomienda que el alumno se acostumbre a copiar del natural de preferencia a tomar los dibujos de un modelo plano.

La exactitud de proporciones y la corrección de los ángulos y curvas así como la relación de la estructura entre las diferentes partes del objeto dibujado, tienen la mayor importancia.

Los principios elementales de perspectiva deben estudiarse a la perfección, acostumbrándose a aplicarlos al dibujo corriente ya sea tomado del mismo objeto o hecho de memoria.

No hay prescripción definida sobre el método de enseñanza del dibujo. El examen se dirigirá a los puntos siguientes:

1. Habilidad para esbozar del natural con la debida corrección respecto a las proporciones, a la estructura y a la forma. Se recomienda que los dibujos incluyan simples objetos geométricos y sencillos modelos naturales, como plantas vivas, etc.
2. Habilidad para dibujar libremente bajo dictado y con la debida corrección cualquiera figura geométrica sencilla o combinación de figuras.
3. Habilidad para representar la perspectiva exacta de un simple sólido geométrico de cuya proyección se faciliten los dibujos; y, viceversa, habilidad en dibujar la proyección conveniente de un simple sólido geométrico del cual se dé la perspectiva.
4. Habilidad para responder todas las preguntas concernientes a los principios que rigen estos dibujos.

MÚSICA.

Los requisitos en música se conforman con el informe de un comité unido representando la Conferencia de Educación Musical del Este y la Liga de Educación de la Nueva Inglaterra.

(A) APRECIACIÓN MUSICAL.[1]

Una unidad.

La junta exigirá examen escrito sobre las dos primeras partes de las materias siguientes:

1. Conocimiento general de las principales formas musicales como el canto, la danza clásica, las fugas y sonatas en sus diversos movimientos y la sinfonía, igualmente que de la historia de su desenvolvimiento.

2. Conocimiento general de la vida de diez compositores por lo menos y de las circunstancias en que actuaron, incluyendo a Bach, Mozart, Beethoven, Schubert y Chopin, y a cinco de entre los siguientes: Handel, Gluck, Haydn, Weber, Mendelssohn, Schumann, Wagner, Verdi, Brahms, Tschaikowsky, Grieg, MacDowell.

3. Conocimiento de ciertos trozos designados:

Bach	Preludio 2 y Fuga 2, Libro Primero, Clavicordio bien templado.
	Gavota de la sexta serie inglesa.
Handel	Coro Hallelujah.
Haydn	Adagio del cuarteto de "Emperador" (Op. 76, No. 3).
Mozart	Sinfonía en Sol menor (completa).
Beethoven	Sonata (Op. 31, No. 3, completa).
	Adagio de la segunda sinfonía.
	Primer movimiento de la séptima sinfonía.
Schubert	Primer movimiento de la sinfonía inconclusa.
	Balada "The Erl King."
	Balada "Hark, Hark, the Lark."
Mendelssohn	Obertura de "El Sueño de una Noche de Verano."
Chopin	Balada (Op. 47).
	Polonesa (Op. 26, No. 1).
	Nocturno (Op. 37, No. 2).
Schumann	Allegro de Faschingsschwank (Op. 26, No. 1).
	Balada "Im wunderschönen Monat Mai."
Wagner	Obertura de "Tannhauser."
	Balada premiada de "Los Maestros Cantores."

La Junta Examinadora de Admisión calificará el examen escrito de las materias comprendidas en las secciones 1 y 2, base sobre la cual el colegio o universidad respectiva registrará un "pase provisional" o una "falla." El candidato que reciba el "pase provisional" presentará examen de la sección 3 en la institución que elija para seguir sus estudios. En este último examen debe identificar el alumno ciertos trozos característicos ejecutados por el profesor y dar adecuada explicación respecto a la forma y carácter de los trozos elegidos. Este examen no requiere habilidad para la interpretación ni para la lectura de la música.

(B) ARMONÍA.

Una unidad.

El examen de armonía requiere solamente una prueba escrita; no habrá examen en ejecución. El candidato necesita poseer:

1. La habilidad de armonizar en cuatro partes vocales simples melodías de ocho frases por lo menos, para soprano o bajo. Este arreglo requiere el conocimiento de triadas y variaciones, de la escala diatónica y sus variaciones en el tono mayor y menor, así como la modulación parcial o completa de las notas relativas.

2. Conocimiento analítico del acorde de novena, de los tonos discrepantes y los acordes de alteración, incluyendo los acordes aumentados. (Se estimula a los estudiantes aplicar estos conocimientos a sus composiciones armónicas).

Se recomienda especialmente que la educación del oído con respecto a intervalos, melodía y acordes forme parte de la preparación para el examen de este curso. Se recomiendan también simples ejercicios de armonía en el piano; y se espera que el estudiante posea el conocimiento completo de los rudimentos de música, escalas, intervalos y pentagrama, incluyendo los términos y los signos de expresión de uso más general.

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[1] La Junta Examinadora de Admisión ha suspendido el examen de estas materias desde 1916.

(D) PIANO; (E) CANTO; (F) VIOLÍN.

El examen de todas estas materias consistirá en un examen escrito sobre teoría y adaptado a la competencia de los que hubieren recibido un año de enseñanza sistemática con una lección por semana o su equivalente.[1] El candidato debe conocer los rudimentos de la música, escalas, intervalos y pentagrama, incluyendo los términos y signos de expresión de uso más general; debe poseer la habilidad suficiente para analizar la armonía y la forma de canciones y piezas sencillas en el piano, comprendiendo triadas, el acorde dominante de séptima y sus variaciones, cambios de tono, y modulación de las notas relativas; y la habilidad de armonizar sobre el papel en cuatro partes vocales, fragmentos melódicos que incluyan el uso de triadas y del acorde dominante de séptima en el tono mayor.

La Junta Examinadora de Admisión calificará el examen escrito, base sobre la cual el colegio o universidad respectiva registrará un "pase provisional" o una "falla." El candidato que obtenga el "pase provisional," presentará un examen de ejecución en la institución donde pretenda ingresar. Dicha institución ofrecerá todos los detalles pertinentes a este examen que requerirá así mismo la educación del oído.

BIOLOGÍA.

Una unidad.

El examen en biología presupone la labor de medio año de botánica y medio año de zoología en las escuelas. Aun cuando la Junta Examinadora de Admisión no ha adoptado todavía una norma definida para los requisitos en biología, las preguntas del examen se adaptarán al método vigente en las buenas escuelas secundarias que ofrecen ahora cursos de biología que representan el valor de media unidad en botánica sumado a media unidad en zoología.

CAPÍTULO II.

PROGRAMA TÍPICO.

Programa de las escuelas primarias públicas en Minneapolis, Minnesota.

	Primer grado.		Segundo grado.		Tercer grado.		Cuarto grado.	
	Períodos.	Minutos.	Períodos.	Minutos.	Períodos.	Minutos.	Períodos.	Minutos.
Primeros ejercicios	5	50	5	50	5	50	5	25
Vacaciones	10	150	10	150	10	150	10	150
Ejercicios físicos	5	50	5	50	5	40	5	50
Higiene	1	20	1	20	1	20	1	20
Fónica y elocución	10	200	10	200	10	150	5	100
Ortografía	5	25	5	75	5	75	5	75
Lectura	25	400	20	365	15	365	5	250
Lenguaje oral	5	90	5	90	5	90	5	90
Lenguaje escrito	5	50	3	60	3	60	4	120
Gramática	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Aritmética	....	....	5	150	5	200	5	200
Geografía y estudio de la naturaleza	2	25	3	50	3	50	4	120
Historia e instrucción cívica	....	....	....	....	....	....	3	60
Escritura	5	60	5	75	5	75	5	75
Música	5	75	5	75	5	75	5	75
Dibujo y labor constructiva	4	80	3	90	3	90	3	90
Enseñanza manual del arte y la ciencia doméstica	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Repaso	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	150
Total	....	1,275	....	1,500	....	1,500	....	1,650

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[1] Se supone que cada lección ocupe una hora.

Programa de las escuelas primarias publicas en Minneapolis, Minnesota.—Continued.

	Quinto grado.		Sexto grado.		Séptimo grado.		Octavo grado.	
	Períodos.	Minutos.	Períodos.	Minutos.	Períodos.	Minutos.	Períodos.	Minutos.
Primeros ejercicios	5	25	5	25	5	25	5	25
Vacaciones	10	150	10	150	10	150	10	150
Ejercicios físicos	5	50	5	50	5	50	5	50
Higiene	1	30	1	30	1	30	1	30
Fónica y elocución	3	75	2	50	2	50	2	50
Ortografía [1]	5	75	5	*75	5	*75	5	*75
Lectura	5	240	5	220	4	*120	4	*120
Languaje oral	3	90	3	90	1	30	1	30
Lenguaje escrito	4	120	3	120	2	60	2	60
Gramática	....	....	....	....	3	180	3	180
Aritmética	5	225	5	225	3	180	3	180
Geografía y estudio de la naturaleza	4	120	4	120	2	*70	2	*70
Historia e instrucción cívica	3	60	3	75	3	*105	3	*105
Escritura	5	75	5	75	3	60	3	60
Música	5	75	5	75	5	75	5	75
Dibujo y labor constructiva	3	90	2	60	3	60	2	60
Enseñanza manual del arte y la ciencia doméstica	....	....	1	60	1	180	1	180
Repaso	....	150	....	150	....	150	....	150
Total	....	1,650	....	1,650	....	1,650	....	1,650

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[1] El tiempo destinado en la casa cada semana para el estudio de las materias señaladas con asterisco se cuenta de la manera siguiente: Séptimo y octavo grado, lectura y ortografía, 1½ horas; geografía ½ hora; historia e instrucción cívica, ¾ de hora. Quinto y sexto grado, ortografía 1 hora.

El signiente programa típico de las high-schools se ha tomado de los "Principios de Educación Secundaria," por Monroe, editados por la compañía Macmillan en 1914:

PROGRAMA DE LAS PEQUEÑAS HIGH-SCHOOLS RURALES.

Primer año:
- Composición y literatura inglesa.
- Historia antigua.
- Latín.
- Álgebra.

Segundo año.
- Composición y literatura inglesa.
- Historia de la Edad Media.
- Latín.
- Geometría.

Tercer año:
- Literatura inglesa.
- Historia inglesa moderna.
- Latín o alemán.
- Física, o teneduría de libros y aritmética comercial.

Cuarto año:
- Literatura inglesa.
- Historia de los Estados Unidos y su forma de gobierno.
- Latín o alemán.
- Química, o escritura a máquina y tipografía.

PROGRAMA TÍPICO DE LAS HIGH-SCHOOLS EN CIUDADES DE MEDIANA IMPORTANCIA.

I. Antiguo curso clásico.

Primer año:
- Latín.
- Historia antigua.
- Inglés.
- Álgebra.

Segundo año:
- Latín.
- Griego.
- Inglés.
- Geometría.

Tercer año:
- Latín.
- Griego.
- Inglés.
- Física.

Cuarto año:
- Latín.
- Griego.
- Inglés.
- (A elección).

II. Curso de idiomas modernos.

- Primer año:
  - Alemán.
  - Historia antigua.
  - Inglés.
  - Álgebra.
- Segundo año:
  - Alemán.
  - Historia de la edad media.
  - Inglés.
  - Geometría.
- Tercer año:
  - Historia de los Estados Unidos, en francés o español.
  - Historia de los Estados Unidos y su forma de gobierno.
  - Inglés.
  - (A elección.)
- Cuarto año:
  - Historia de los Estados Unidos y su forma de gobierno.
  - Inglés.
  - (A elección.)

III. Curso inglés de historia.

- Primer año:
  - Latín o alemán.
  - Historia antigua.
  - Inglés.
  - Álgebra.
- Segundo año:
  - Latín o alemán.
  - Historia de la edad media.
  - Inglés.
  - Geometría.
- Tercer año:
  - Historia moderna.
  - Inglés.
  - Física.
  - Dibujo.
- Cuarto año:
  - Historia de los Estados Unidos y su forma de gobierno.
  - Inglés.
  - (A elección.)
  - (A elección.)

IV. Curso científico.

- Primer año:
  - Alemán.
  - Botánica.
  - Inglés.
  - Álgebra.
- Segunda año:
  - Alemán.
  - Zoología.
  - Inglés.
  - Geometría.
- Tercer año:
  - Física.
  - Dibujo.
  - Trigonometría.
  - (A elección.)
- Cuarto año:
  - Química.
  - Dibujo.
  - Historia de los Estados Unidos y su forma de gobierno.
  - (A elección.)

V. Curso comercial.

- Primer año:
  - (Cualquier otro curso.)
- Segundo año:
  - (Cualquier otro curso.)
- Tercer año:
  - Español.
  - Aritmética comercial.
  - Teneduría de libros.
  - Escritura a máquina.
- Cuarto año:
  - Español.
  - Práctica comercial.
  - Geografía comercial.
  - Derecho comercial.
  - Tipografía.

PROGRAMA DE LAS HIGH-SCHOOLS EN LAS CIUDADES DE IMPORTANCIA, DONDE SE HAN ABANDONADO LOS CURSOS OBLIGATORIOS.

Estas escuelas ofrecen vasto campo de elección, requiriendo solamente cierto número de unidades en grupos determinados y proveen, por decirlo así, diferente curso según las necesidades de cada alumno.

Se dictan las clases siguientes, indicándose con las cifras a continuación de las materias citadas el número de años que se dedica a cada una de ellas.

- Grupo I.—Idiomas:
  - Latin, 4.
  - Griego, 3.
  - Alemán, 4.
  - Francés, 2.
  - Español, 2.
- Grupo II.—Inglés:
  - Composición inglesa, 2.
  - Literatura inglesa, 4.
  - Historia de la literatura inglesa y americana, 1.
- Grupo III.—Historia:
  - Historia antigua, 1.
  - Historia de la edad media, 1.
  - Historia inglesa moderna, 1.
  - Historia universal, 1.
  - Historia de los Estados Unidos y su forma de gobierno.
- Grupo IV.—Matemáticas:
  - Algebra, 1 y 1½.
  - Geometría, 1 y 1½.
  - Trigonometría, ½.
  - Agrimensura, ½.
  - Aritmética comercial, ½.
- Grupo V.—Ciencias:
  - Botánica, 1.
  - Zoología, 1.
  - Biología, 1.
  - Geografía física, 1.
  - Física, 1.
  - Química, 1.
  - Geología, ½.
  - Astronomía, ½.
- Grupo VI.—Miscelánea:
  - Música, 2.
  - Dibujo a pulso, 2.
  - Expresión vocal, 2.
  - Ejercicios físicos. 4.
- Grupo VII.—Oficios y profesiones:
  - Dibujo mecánico y geométrico, 2.
  - Educación manual, 3.
  - Ciencia doméstica, 2.
  - Administración doméstica, 1.
  - Teneduría de libros, 1.
  - Práctica comercial, 1.
  - Tipografía, 1.
  - Escritura en máquina, 1.

Regulaciones para la combinación de grupos y para obtener los grados:

1. Los estudiantes deben completar para graduarse la labor de 15 años, es decir, cuatro clases cada año durante tres años y tres clases de un año. 2. Pueden obtener el permiso necesario para llevar cinco clases o tres por lo menos cada semestre. 3. Deben haber cursado al graduarse dos años en los grupos I y II, un año en cada uno de los otros, y cuatro años en cualquiera otro, a elección.

SECCIÓN CUARTA.

LISTA DE LOS PRINCIPALES DEPARTAMENTOS O ESCUELAS DESCRITOS EN LA SECCIÓN SEXTA Y DESTINADOS A DIVERSOS RAMOS DE ESTUDIO LIBERAL, CIENTÍFICO Y PROFESIONAL.

Las secciones cuarta, quinta y sexta de este boletín especifican, tan detalladamente como el espacio lo permite, las condiciones de ciertos colegios, universidades y escuelas tecnológicas de los Estados Unidos que han atraído ya numerosos estudiantes extranjeros y que ocupan alto puesto entre las instituciones educadoras de la nación. En esta sección ofrecemos la lista de dichas instituciones. A ésta sigue la relación de los cursos que ofrecen y de los grados, diplomas o certificados en departamentos de artes liberales para alumnos no graduados, en escuelas o departamentos para graduados y en escuelas tecnológicas o profesionales. La sección quinta es la clave de las abreviaturas usadas comúnmente para designar los grados concedidos por todas las instituciones mencionadas en el boletín. La sección sexta contiene breve relación de la organización y facilidades que ofrecen las instituciones dedicadas a fines especiales.

LISTA DE LAS INSTITUCIONES MENCIONADAS EN LA SECCIÓN SEXTA.

Alabama:
1. Alabama Polytechnic Institute.

Arizona:
2. University of Arizona.

California:
3. Leland Stanford Junior University.
4. University of California.
5. University of Southern California.

Colorado:
6. Colorado School of Mines.

Connecticut:
7. Yale University.

District of Columbia:
8. Catholic University of America.
9. Georgetown University.
10. George Washington University.
11. Howard University.

Hawaii:
12. College of Hawaii.

Illinois:
13. Armour Institute of Technology.
14. University of Chicago.
15. University of Illinois.
16. Northwestern University.

Indiana:
17. University of Notre Dame.
18. Purdue University.

Iowa:
19. Iowa State College.
20. State University of Iowa.

Louisiana:
21. Louisiana State University.
22. Tulane University of Louisiana.

Maryland:
23. Goucher College.
24. Johns Hopkins University.

Massachusetts:
25. Clark University and Clark College.
26. Harvard University.
27. Massachusetts Agricultural College.
28. Massachusetts Institute of Technology.
29. Mount Holyoke College.
30. Simmons College.
31. Smith College.
32. Tufts College.
33. Worcester Polytechnic Institute.

Michigan:
34. Michigan College of Mines.
35. University of Michigan.

Minnesota:
36. University of Minnesota.

Missouri:
37. St. Louis University.
38. University of Missouri.
39. Washington University.

Nebraska:
40. University of Nebraska.

New Hampshire:
- 41. Dartmouth College.

New Jersey:
- 42. Princeton University.
- 43. Stevens Institute of Technology.

New York:
- 44. Columbia University.
- 45. Cornell University.
- 46. New York University.
- 47. Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute.

Ohio:
- 48. Case School of Applied Science.
- 49. Ohio State University.
- 50. University of Cincinnati.

Oregon:
- 51. University of Oregon.

Pennsylvania:
- 52. Bryn Mawr College.
- 53. Lehigh University.
- 54. Pennsylvania State College.
- 55. University of Pennsylvania.

South Carolina:
- 56. Clemson Agricultural College.

Tennessee:
- 57. George Peabody College for Teachers.
- 58. Vanderbilt University.

Virginia:
- 59. Randolph-Macon Woman's College.
- 60. University of Virginia.

Washington:
- 61. University of Washington.

Wisconsin:
- 62. University of Wisconsin.

DEPARTAMENTOS, COLEGIOS O ESCUELAS DE ARTES Y CIENCIAS PARA ALUMNOS NO GRADUADOS.

Grados: B. A., B. C., B. Fil., B. Lit., B. C. Gen., B. C. Puras; diplomas.

1. Bryn Mawr College (Departamento para alumnos no graduados)—B. A. (cuatro años).
2. Catholic University of America (Escuela de filosofía—departamento para no graduados)—B. A. (cuatro años), B. Fil. (cuatro años).
   (Escuela de letras—departamento para no graduados)—B. A. (cuatro años), B. Lit. (cuatro años).
   (Escuela de ciencias—departamento para no graduados)—B. C. (cuatro años), B. A. (cuatro años).
   (Colegio Trinidad—departamento para no graduados)—B. A. (cuatro años), B. C. (cuatro años), B. Lit. (cuatro años).
3. Clark College—B. A. (tres años).
4. College of Hawaii (Departamento para no graduados)—B. C. (cuatro años).
5. Columbia University (Colegio Columbia)—B. A. (cuatro años), B. C. (cuatro años).
   (Colegio Bárnard)—B. A. (cuatro años), B. C. (cuatro años).
6. Cornell University (Colegio de artes y ciencias)—B. A. (cuatro años).
7. Dartmouth College (Departamento de artes y ciencias para alumnos no graduados)—B. A. (cuatro años), B. C. (cuatro años).
8. George Washington University (Colegio Columbian)—B. A. (cuatro años).
9. Georgetown University (El colegio—departamento para no graduados)—B. A. (cuatro años), B. C. (cuatro años).
10. Goucher College (Departamento para no graduados)— B. A. cuatro años).
11. Harvard University (Colegio Hárvard)—B. A. (cuatro años), B. C. (cuatro años).
    (Colegio Rádcliffe—departamento para no graduados)—B. A. (cuatro años).
12. Howard University (Colegio de artes y ciencias)—B. A. (cuatro años), B. C. (cuatro años).
13. Johns Hopkins University (Facultad de filosofía)—B. A. (cuatro años).
14. Lehigh University (Departamento para no graduados)—B. A. (cuatro años), B. C. (cuatro años).
15. Leland Stanford Junior University (Departamento para no graduados)—B. A. (cuatro años).

16. Louisiana State University (Departamento de artes y ciencias)—B. A. (cuatro años).
17. Massachusetts Institute of Technology (Departamento para no graduados)—B. A. (Ciencias generales) (cuatro años).
18. Mount Holyoke College (Departamento para no graduados)—B. A. (cuatro años).
19. New York University (Colegio de artes y ciencias puras)—B. A. (cuatro años), B. C. en ciencias puras (cuatro años).
    (Colegio Washington Square)—B. A. (ocho años), B. C. (ocho años).
20. Northwestern University (Colegio de artes liberales)—B. A. (cuatro años).
21. Ohio State University (Colegio de artes, ciencias y filosofía)—B. A. (cuatro años).
    (Escuela de ciencias naturales)—B. C. (cuatro años).
22. Pennsylvania State College (Escuela de artes liberales)—B. A. (cuatro años).
    (Escuela de ciencias naturales)—B. C. (cuatro años).
23. Princeton University (Departamento para no graduados)—B. A. (cuatro años), B. Lit. (cuatro años), B. C. (cuatro años).
24. Purdue University (Departamento para no graduados)—B. C. (cuatro años).
25. Randolph Macon Woman's College (Departamento para alumnos no graduados)—B. A. (cuatro años).
26. Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute (Departamento para no graduados)—B. A. (cuatro años).
27. St. Louis University (Colegio de artes y ciencias)—B. A. (cuatro años), B. C. (cuatro años).
    (Escuela de filosofía y ciencias).
28. Simmons College (Departamento para no graduados)—B. C. (cuatro años), diploma (curso corto).
29. Smith College (Departamento para no graduados)—B. A. (cuatro años).
30. State University of Iowa (Colegio de artes liberales)—B. A. (cuatro años), B. C. (seis años curso combinado).
31. Tufts College (Escuela de artes liberales)—B. A. (cuatro años), B. C. (cuatro años).
    (Colegio Jackson)—B. A. (cuatro años), B. C. (cuatro años).
32. Tulane University of Louisiana (Colegio de artes y ciencias)—B. A. (cuatro años), B. C. (cuatro años).
    (Colegio conmemorativo de H. Sophie Newcomb)—B. A. (cuatro años).
33. University of Arizona (Departamento para no graduados)—B. A. (cuatro años), B. C. (cuatro años).
34. University of California (Colegio de letras)—B. A. (cuatro años).
    (Colegio de ciencias naturales)—B. C. (cuatro años).
35. University of Chicago (Colegios)—B. A. (cuatro años), B. C. (cuatro años), B. Fil. (cuatro años).
36. University of Cincinnati (Colegio McMicken de artes liberales)—B. A. (cuatro años).
37. University of Illinois (Colegio de artes y ciencias liberales)—B. A. (cuatro años), B. C. (cuatro años).
38. University of Michigan (Colegio de literatura, artes y ciencias)—B. A. (cuatro años), B. C. (cuatro años).
39. University of Minnesota (Colegio de ciencias, literatura y artes)—B. A. (cuatro años), B. C. (artes y medicina combinadas) (cuatro años).
40. University of Missouri (Colegio de artes y ciencias)—B. A. (cuatro años).
    (Escuela de minas y metalurgia)—B. C. en ciencias generales (cuatro años).
41. University of Nebraska (Colegio de artes liberales)—B. A. (cuatro años), B. C. (cuatro años).
42. University of Notre Dame (Colegio de artes y letras)—B. A. (cuatro años), B. Lit. (cuatro años), B. Fil. (cuatro años).
    (Colegio de ciencias)—B. C. (cuatro años).

43. University of Oregon (Colegio de literatura, ciencias y artes)—B. A. (cuatro años).
44. University of Pennsylvania (Departamento de artes y ciencias para no graduados)—B. A. (cuatro años).
45. University of Southern California (Colegio de artes liberales—departamento para no graduados)—B. A. (cuatro años), B. C. (cuatro años).
46. University of Virginia (El colegio)—B. A. (cuatro años), B. C. (cuatro años).
47. University of Washington (Colegio de artes liberales)—B. A. (cuatro años).
    (Colegio de ciencias)—B. C. (cuatro años).
    (Colegio de minas)—B. C. (cuatro años).
48. University of Wisconsin (Colegio de letras y ciencias)—B. A. (cuatro años), B. Fil. (dos años).
49. Vanderbilt University (El colegio)—B. A. (cuatro años), B. C. (cuatro años).
50. Washington University (St. Louis) (El colegio)—B. A. (cuatro años).
51. Worcester Polytechnic Institute (Departamento para no graduados)—B. C. (cuatro años).
52. Yale University (Colegio Yale)—B. A. (cuatro años).
    (Escuela científica Sheffield)—B. Fil. (tres años).

ESCUELAS, DEPARTAMENTOS O COLEGIOS DE ARTES Y CIENCIAS PARA GRADUADOS.

Grados: M. C., M. A., M. Fil., Dr. Fil., M. Lit., Dr. C., etc.

1. Alabama Polytechnic Institute (Escuela para graduados)—M. C. (un año).
2. Armour Institute of Technology (Departamento para graduados)—M. C. (un año).
3. Bryn Mawr College (Departamento para graduados)—M. A. (uno a tres años), Dr. Fil. (tres años).
4. Case School of Applied Science (Departamento para graduados)—M. C. (un año).
5. Catholic University of America (Escuela de filosofía—departamento para graduados)—M. Fil. (dos años), Dr. Fil. (tres años).
    (Escuela de letras—departamento para graduados)—M. A. (un año), M. Lit. (dos años), Dr. Fil. (tres años), Dr. Lit. (tres años).
    (Escuela de ciencias—departamento para graduados)—M. A. (un año), Dr. C. (tres años), Dr. Fil. (tres años), M. C. (dos años).
    (Colegio Trinidad—departamento para graduados)—M. A. (un año), M. C. (un año).
6. Clark University—M. A. (un año), Dr. Fil. (tres años).
7. College of Hawaii (Departamento para graduados)—M. C. (un año).
8. Columbia University (Departamento para graduados)—M. A. (un año). Dr. Fil. (dos años).
9. Cornell University (Escuela para graduados)—M. A. (un año), Dr. Fil. (tres años).
10. Dartmouth College (Departamento para graduados)—M. A. (un año), M. C. (un año).
11. George Washington University (Escuela para graduados)—M. A. (un año), M. C. (un año), Dr. Fil. (tres años).
12. Georgetown University (Escuela para graduados)—M. A. (un año), M. C. (un año), Dr. Fil. (dos años).
13. Harvard University (Escuela de artes y ciencias para graduados)—M. A. (un año), Dr. Fil. (dos años).
    (Escuela de ciencia aplicada para graduados)—M. C. (dos años), Dr. C. (dos años).
    (Colegio Radcliffe—departamento para graduados)—M. A. (un año), Dr. Fil. (dos años).
14. Iowa State College (Departamento para graduados)—M. C. (un año), Dr. Fil. (tres años).

15. Johns Hopkins University (Departamento para graduados)—M. A. (dos años), Dr. Fil. (tres años).
16. Lehigh University (Departamento para graduados)—M. A. (un año), M. C. (un año).
17. Leland Stanford Junior University (Departamento para graduados)—M. A. (un año), Dr. Fil. (tres años).
18. Louisiana State University (Escuela para graduados)—M. A. (uno o dos años), M. C. (uno o dos años).
19. Mount Holyoke College (Departamento para graduados)—M. A. (un año).
20. New York University (Escuela para graduados)—M. A. (un año), M. C. (un año), Dr. Fil. (tres años), Dr. C. (tres años).
21. Northwestern University (Escuela para graduados)—M. A. (un año), Dr. Fil. (tres años).
22. Ohio State University (Escuela para graduados)—M. A. (un año), M. C. (un año), Dr. Fil. (tres años).
23. Pennsylvania State College (Departamento para graduados)—M. A., M. C., I. Civ., I. Mec., I. Elec., I. M.
24. Princeton University (Escuela para graduados)—M. A. (un año), Dr. Fil. (dos años).
25. Purdue University (Departamento para graduados)—M. C. (un año).
26. Randolph-Macon Woman's College (Departamento para graduados)—M. A. (un año).
27. Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute (Departamento para graduados)—M. C. (un año), Dr. Fil. (tres años), Dr. C. (tres años).
28. Simmons College (Departamento para graduados)—M. C. (un año).
29. Smith College (Departamento para graduados)—M. A. (un año), Dr. Fil. (tres años).
30. State College of Iowa (Colegio para graduados)—M. C. (un año), M. A. (un año), Dr. Fil. (tres años).
31. Tufts College (Escuela para graduados)—M. A. (un año), M. C. (un año).
32. Tulane University of Louisiana (Departamento para graduados)—M. A. (un año), M. C. (un año), Dr. Fil. (tres años).
33. University of Arizona (Escuela para graduados)—M. A. (un año), M. C. (un año).
34. University of California (Escuela para graduados)—M. A. (un año), M. Lit. (un año), M. C. (un año), Dr. Fil. (dos años).
35. University of Chicago (Escuela de artes y literatura para graduados y escuela Ogden de ciencias)—M. A. (un año), M. C. (un año). Dr. Fil. (tres años).
36. University of Cincinnati (Escuela para graduados)—M. A. (un año), Dr. Fil. (tres años).
37. University of Illinois (Escuela para graduados)—M. A. (un año), M. C. (un año), Dr. Fil. (tres años).
38. University of Michigan (Escuela para graduados)—M. A. (un año), M. C. (un año), Dr. Fil. (tres años), Dr. C. (tres años).
39. University of Minnesota (Escuela para graduados)—M. A. (un año), M. C. (un año), Dr. Fil. (tres años), Dr. C. (tres años).
40. University of Missouri (Escuela para graduados)—M. A. (un año), Dr. Fil. (tres años).
41. University of Nebraska (Colegio para graduados)—M. A. (un año), Dr. Fil. (tres años).
42. University of Notre Dame (Escuela para graduados)—M. Fil. (un año), Dr. Fil. (tres años).
43. University of Oregon (Escuela para graduados),—M. A. (un año), M. C. (un año).
44. University of Pennsylvania (Escuela para graduados)—M. A. (un año), M. C. (un año), Dr. Fil. (tres años).

45. University of Southern California (Colegio de artes liberales—departamento para graduados)—M. A. (un año).
46. University of Virginia (Departamento para graduados)—M. A. (un año), M. C. (un año), Dr. Fil. (tres años).
47. University of Washington (Escuela para graduados)—M. A. (un año), M. C. (un año), Dr. Fil. (tres años).
48. University of Wisconsin (Escuela para graduados)—M. A. (un año), M. C. (un año), M. Fil. (un año), Dr. Fil. (tres años).
49. Vanderbilt University (Departamento para graduados)—M. A. (un año), M. C. (un año), Dr. Fil. (tres años), Dr. C. (tres años).
50. Washington University (St. Louis) (El colegio)—M. A. (un año), Dr. Fil. (tres años).
51. Worcester Polytechnic Institute (Departamento para graduados)—M. C. (un año), Dr. C. (tres años).
52. Yale University (Escuela científica Shéffield)—M. C. (dos años).
    (Escuela para graduados)—M. A. (dos años), Dr. Fil. (tres años).

CURSOS DE INGENIERÍA.

COLEGIOS, DEPARTAMENTOS, ESCUELAS O DIVISIONES DE INGENIERÍA GENERAL.

(Incluyéndose también dos o más ramos especiales de ingeniería.)

PARA ALUMNOS NO GRADUADOS.

Grados: B. C., B. C. en I. M. y Met., B. C. en I., B. I., B. C. en Cer., B. I. Cer., B. C. en Dibujo constructivo, B. C. en I. constructivo, B. C. en I. Mec. y en I. Eléc.

1. Alabama Polytechnic Institute (Colegio de ingeniería y minas)—B. C. (cuatro años).
2. Clemson Agricultural College (Departamento para alumnos no graduados)—B. C. en I. Mec. y en I. Eléc. (cuatro años).
3. Howard University (Escuela de arte manual y ciencias aplicadas)—B. C. en I. (cuatro años).
4. Iowa State College (División de ingeniería)—B. C. en Cer. (cuatro años), B. C. en Dib. Const.—(cuatro años).
5. Johns Hopkins University (Departamento de ingeniería)—B. C. (cuatro años).
6. Louisiana State University (Departamento de ingeniería)—B. C. (cuatro años).
7. Massachusetts Institute of Technology (Departamento para no graduados)—B. C. (cuatro años), (Ingeniería de minas y metalúrgica).
8. Northwestern University (Colegio de ingeniería)—B. C. (cuatro años).
9. Ohio State University (Colegio de ingeniería)—B. I. Cer. (cuatro años).
10. Pennsylvania State College (Escuela de ingeniería)—B. C. (cuatro años).
11. State University of Iowa (Colegio de ciencias aplicadas)—B. I. (cuatro años), B. C. (cuatro años).
12. Tufts College (Escuela de ingeniería)—B. C. en I. Const. (cuatro años).
13. University of Arizona (Departamento para alumnos no graduados)—B. C. en I. M. y Met. (cuatro años).
14. University of California (Colegio de mecánica) B. C. en I. Mec. y Eléc. (cuatro y cinco años).
    (Colegio de ingeniería civil)—B. C. en ingeniería ferroviaria, I. sanitaria, I. de irrigación (cuatro y cinco años).
15. University of Michigan (Colegio de ingeniería y arquitectura)—B. C. en I. (cuatro años).
16. University of Minnesota (Colegio de ingeniería y de artes mecánicas)—B. C. en I. (cuatro años).

CURSOS PARA GRADUADOS.

Grados: M. C., M. C. en I., M. C. (con mención en ramo especial), B. C., y B. C. en ramo especial, Dr. Fil., Dr. I., I. Cer.

1. Iowa State College (División de ingeniería)—B. C. y B. C. en ramo especial (cinco años).
   (División de ciencia industrial)—B. C. y B. C. en ramo especial (cinco años).
2. Johns Hopkins University (Departamento de ingeniería)—Dr. Fil. (tres años).
3. Massachusetts Institute of Technology (Departamento para graduados)—M. C. (un año), Dr. Fil. (tres años), Dr. I. (tres años).
4. Ohio State University (Escuela para graduados)—I. Cer. (cinco a ocho años), M. C. I. (cuatro o cinco años).
5. Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute (Departamento para graduados)—Dr. en I. (tres años).
6. University of Illinois (Escuela para graduados)—M. C. (con mención en ramo especial) (un año).
7. University of Michigan (Escuela para graduados)—M. C. I. (un año).
8. University of Nebraska (Colegio de ingeniería)—Dr. Fil. tres años).

COLEGIOS, ESCUELAS O DEPARTAMENTOS DE INGENIERÍA QUÍMICA.

CURSOS PARA ALUMNOS NO GRADUADOS.

Grados: B. C. en I. Q., I. Q., B. I. Q., B. C., B. I.

1. Armour Institute of Technology (Departamento para alumnos no graduados)—B. C. en I. Q. (cuatro años).
2. Case School of Applied Science (Departamento para no graduados)—B. C. en I. Q. (cuatro años).
3. Catholic University of America (Escuela de ciencias—Departamento para no graduados)—B. C. en I. Q. (cuatro años).
4. Columbia University (Escuela de química)—I. Q. (cuatro años).
5. Iowa State College (División de ingeniería)—B. C. en I. Q. (cuatro años).
6. Lehigh University (Departamento para no graduados)—I. Q. (cuatro años).
7. Massachusetts Institute of Technology (Departamento para no graduados)—B. C. (cuatro años).
8. New York University (Escuela de ciencia aplicada)—B. C. en I. Q. (cuatro años).
9. Ohio State University (Colegio de ingeniería)—B. I. Q. (cuatro años.)
10. Purdue University (Departamento para no graduados)—B. C. en I. Q. (cuatro años).
11. Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute (Departamento para no graduados)—I. Q. (cuatro años).
12. Tufts College (Escuela de ingeniería)—B. C. en I. Q. (cuatro años).
13. Tulane University of Louisiana (Colegio de tecnología)—B. I. Q. (cuatro años).
14. University of Cincinnati (Cologio de ingeniería)—B. C. en I. Q. (cuatro años de curso teórico), I. Q. (cinco años de curso cooperativo).
15. University of Missouri (Escuela de ingeniería)—I. Q. (tres años).
16. University of Notre Dame (Colegio de ingeniería)—I. Q. (cuatro años).
17. University of Pennsylvania (Escuela científica Towne)—B. C. en I. Q. (cuatro años).
18. University of Southern California (Colegio de artes liberales—Departamento para alumnos no graduados)—Curso de dos años.
19. University of Virginia (Departamento de ingeniería)—I. Q. (cuatro años).
20. University of Washington (Colegio de ingeniería)—B. C. en I. Q. (cuatro años), B. C. (cuatro años).
21. University of Wisconsin (Colegio de ingeniería)—B. C. en I. Q. (cuatro años).
22. Vanderbilt University (Departamento de ingeniería)—B. I. (cuatro años).
23. Washington University (St. Louis) (Escuela de ingeniería)—B. C. en I. Q. (cuatro años).

CURSOS PARA GRADUADOS.

Grados: M. C. en I. Q., M. I. Q., I. Q.

1. Alabama Polytechnic Institute (Departamento para graduados)—I. Q. (un año).
2. Armour Institute of Technology (Departamento para graduados)—I. Q. (tres años).
3. Case School of Applied Science (Departamento para graduados)—I. Q. (tres años).
4. Leland Stanford Junior University (Departamento para graduados)—I. Q. (un año).
5. Louisiana State University (Escuela para graduados)—I. Q. (uno o dos años).
6. New York University (Escuela de ciencia aplicada)—I. Q. (un año).
7. Ohio State University (Escuela para graduados)—I. Q. (cinco a ocho años).
8. Purdue University (Departamento para graduados)—I. Q. (un año).
9. Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute (Departamento para graduados)—M. I. Q. (un año).
10. Tulane University of Louisiana (Departamento de estudios para graduados)—I. Q.) uno o dos años).
11. University of Michigan (Escuela para graduados)—I. Q.
12. University of Minnesota (Escuela de química—curso en química aplicada)—I. Q. (cinco años).
13. University of Washington (Colegio de ingeniería)—M. C. en I. Q. (un año).
14. University of Wisconsin (Escuela para graduados)—I. Q. (uno a tres años).
15. Washington University (St. Louis) (Escuela de ingeniería)—I. Q. (tres años).
16. Worcester Polytechnic Institute (Departamento para graduados)—I. Q. (un año).

DEPARTAMENTOS, ESCUELAS, COLEGIOS O DIVISIONES DE INGENIERÍA CIVIL.

CURSOS PARA ALUMNOS NO GRADUADOS.

Grados: B. C. en I. Civ., B. C., B. C. I., B. I., I. Civ.

1. Armour Institute of Technology (Departamento para no graduados))—B. C. en I. Civ. (cuatro años).
2. Case School of Applied Science (Departamento para no graduados)—B. C. en I. Civ. (cuatro años).
3. Catholic Universitty of America (Escuela de ciencias—departamento para no graduados)—B. C. en I. Civ. (cuatro años).
4. Clemson Agricultural College (Departamento para no graduados)—B. C. en I. Civ. (cuatro años.).
5. College of Hawaii (Departamento para no graduados)—B. C. en I. Civ. (cuatro años).
6. Columbia University (Escuela de ingeniería)—I. Civ. (cuatro años).
7. Cornell University (Colegio de ingeniería civil)—I. Civ. (cuatro o cinco años).
8. George Washington University (Colegio de ingeniería)—B. C. en I. Civ. (cuatro años).
5. Iowa State College (Division de ingeniería)—B. C. en I Civ. (cuatro años).
10. Lehigh University (Departamento para no graduados)—I Civ. (cuatro años).
11. Massachusetts Institute of Technology (Departamento para no graduados)—B. C. cuatro años).
12. New York University (Escuela de ciencia aplicada) —B. C. en I. Civ. (cuatro años).
13. Ohio State University (Colegio de ingeniería)—B. I. Civ. (cuatro años).
14. Princeton University (Departamento para no graduados)—I. Civ. (cuatro años).
15. Purdue University (Departamento para no graduados))—B. C. en I. Civ. (cuatro años).
16. Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute (Departamento para no graduados)—I. Civ. (cuatro años).

17. Tufts College (Escuela de ingeniería)—B. C. en I. Civ. (cuatro años).
18. Tulane University of Louisiana (Colegio de tecnología)—B. I. Civ. (cuatro años).
19. University of Arizona (Departamento para no graduados)—B. C. en I. Civ. (cuatro años).
20. University of Cincinnati (Colegio de ingeniería)—B. C. en I. Civ. (curso teórico de cuatro años)—I. Civ. (curso cooperativo de cinco años).
21. University of Illinois (Colegio de ingeniería)—B. C. en I. Civ. (cuatro años).
22. University of Missouri (Escuela de ingeniería)—I. Civ. (tres años).
    (Escuela de minas y metalurgia)—B. C. en I. Civ. (cuatro años).
23. University of Nebraska (Colegio de ingeniería)—I. Civ. (cuatro años).
24. University of Notre Dame (Colegio de ingeniería)—I. Civ. (cuatro años).
25. University of Pennsylvania (Escuela científica Towne)—B. C. en I. Civ. (cuatro años).
26. University of Virginia (Departamento de ingeniería)—I. Civ. (cuatro años).
27. University of Washington (Colegio de ingeniería)—B. C. en I. Civ. (cuatro años), B. C. (cuatro años).
28. University of Wisconsin (Colegio de ingeniería)—B. C. en I. Civ. (cuatro años).
29. Vanderbilt University (Departamento de ingeniería)—B. I. (cuatro años).
30. Washington University (St. Louis) (Escuela de ingeniería)—B. C. en I. Civ. (cuatro años).

CURSOS PARA GRADUADOS.

Grados: B. C. en I. Civ., M. C. en I. Civ., I. Civ., M. I. Civ.

1. Alabama Polytechnic Institute (Departamento para graduados)—I. Civ. (un año).
2. Armour Institute of Technology (Departamento para graduados)—I. Civ. (tres años).
3. Case School of Applied Science (Departamento para graduados)—I. Civ. (tres años).
4. Catholic University of America (Escuela de ciencias—departamento para graduados)—I. Civ. (dos años).
5. College of Hawaii (Departamento para graduados)—I. Civ. (un año).
6. Cornell University (Escuela para graduados)—M. I. Civ. (un año).
7. Darmouth College (Escuela Thaye de ingeniería civil)—I. Civ. (dos años).
8. George Washington University (Escuela de estudios para graduados)—I. Civ. (un año).
9. Harvard University (Escuela de ciencia aplicada para graduados)—M. I. Civ. (dos años).
10. Howard University (Escuela de arte manual y ciencia aplicada)—I. Civ. (dos años).
11. Iowa State College (División de ingeniería)—B. C. en I. Civ. (cinco años), I. Civ. (cinco o seis años).
12. Johns Hopkins University (Departamento de ingeniería)—M. I. Civ. (dos años).
13. Leland Stanford Junior University (Departamento para graduados)—I. Civ. (un año).
14. Louisiana State University (Escuela para graduados)—I. Civ. (uno o dos años).
15. New York University (Escuela de ciencia aplicada)—I. Civ. (un año).
16. Northwestern University (Colegio de ingeniería)—I. Civ. (cinco años).
17. Ohio State University (Escuela para graduados)—I. Civ. (cinco a ocho años).
18. Pennsylvania State College (Departamento para graduados)—I. Civ.
19. Purdue University (Departamento para graduados)—I. Civ. (un año).
20. Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute (Departamento para graduados)—M. I. Civ. (un año).
21. Tulane University of Louisiana (Departamento de estudios para graduados)—I. Civ. (uno o dos años).

22. University of California (Escuela para graduados)—I. Civ. (tres años).
23. University of Illinois (Escuela para graduados)—I. Civ. (tres años).
24. University of Michigan (Escuela para graduados)—I. Civ.
25. University of Minnesota (Colegio de ingeniería y artes mecánicas)—I. Civ. (cinco años).
26. University of Nebraska (Colegio para graduados)—M. C. en I. Civ. (un año), I. Civ. (un año).
27. University of Washington (Colegio de ingeniería)—M. C. en I. Civ. (un año), I. Civ. (uno o dos años).
28. University of Wisconsin (Escuela para graduados)—I. Civ. (uno a tres años).
29. Vanderbilt University (Departamento de ingeniería)—I. Civ. (un año).
30. Washington University (St. Louis) (Escuela de ingeniería)—I. Civ. (tres años).
31. Worcester Polytechnic Institute (Departamento para graduados)—I. Civ. (un año).
32. Yale University (Escuela científica Sheffield)—I. Civ. (cinco años).

DEPARTAMENTOS, ESCUELAS, DIVISIONES O COLEGIOS DE INGENIERÍA ELÉCTRICA.

CURSOS PARA ALUMNOS NO GRADUADOS.

Grados: B. C. en I. Civ., B. C., B. I. Eléc., I. Eléc., B. I.

1. Armour Institute of Technology (Departamento para no graduados)—B. C. en I. Eléc. (cuatro años).
2. Case School of Applied Science (Departamento para no graduados)—B. C. en I. Eléc. (cuatro años).
3. Catholic University of America (Escuela de ciencias—departamento para no graduados)—B. C. en I. Eléc. (cuatro años).
4. Columbia University (Escuela de ingeniería)—I. Eléc. (cuatro años).
5. George Washington University (Colegio de ingeniería)—B. C. en I. Eléc. (cuatro años).
6. Iowa State College (División de ingeniería)—B. C. en I. Eléc. (cuatro años).
7. Lehigh University (Departamento para no graduados)—I. Eléc. (cuatro años).
8. Massachusetts Institute of Technology (Departamento para no graduados)—B. C. (cuatro años).
9. Northwestern University (Colegio de ingeniería)—I. Eléc. (cuatro años).
10. Ohio State University (Colegio de ingeniería)—B. I. Eléc. (cuatro años).
11. Pennsylvania State College (Departamento para graduados)—I. Eléc. (cuatro años).
12. Purdue University (Departamento para no graduados)—B. C. en I. Eléc. (cuatro años).
13. Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute (Departamento para no graduados)—I. Eléc. (cuatro años).
14. Tufts College (Escuela de ingeniería)—B. C. en I. Eléc. (cuatro años).
15. Tulane University of Louisiana (Colegio de tecnología)—B. I. Eléc. (cuatro años).
16. University of Arizona (Departamento para no graduados)—B. C. en I. Eléc. (cuatro años).
17. University of Cincinnati (Colegio de ingeniería)—B. C. en I. Eléc. (curso teórico de cuatro años), I. Eléc. (curso cooperativo de cinco años).
18. University of Illinois (Colegio de ingeniería)—B. C. en I. Eléc. (cuatro años).
19. University of Missouri (Escuela de ingeniería)—I. Eléc. (tres años).
20. University of Nebraska (Colegio de ingeniería)—B. C. en I. Eléc. (cuatro años).
21. University of Pennsylvania (Escuela científica Towne)—B. C. en I. Eléc. (cuatro años).
22. University of Virginia (Departamento de ingeniería)—I. Eléc. (cuatro años).

23. University of Washington (Colegio de ingeniería)—B. C. en I. Eléc. (cuatro años), B. C. (cuatro años).
24. University of Wisconsin (Colegio de ingeniería)—B. C. en I. Eléc. (cuatro años).
25. Vanderbilt University (Departamento de ingeniería)—B. I. (cuatro años).
26. Washington University (St. Louis) (Escuela de ingeniería—B. C. en I. Eléc. (cuatro años).

CURSOS PARA GRADUADOS.

Grados: B. C. en I. Eléc., M. C. en I. Eléc., I. Eléc., M. I. Eléc.

1. Alabama Polytechnic Institute (Departamento para graduados)—I. Eléc. (un año).
2. Armour Institute of Technology (Departamento para graduados)—I. Eléc. (tres años).
3. Case School of Applied Science (Departamento para graduados)—I. Eléc. (tres años).
4. Catholic University of America (Escuela de ciencias—departamento para graduados)—I. Eléc. (dos años).
5. College of Hawaii (Departamento para graduados)—I. Eléc. (un año).
6. George Washington University (Escuela de estudios para graduados)—I. Eléc. (un año).
7. Harvard University (Escuela de ciencia aplicada para graduados)—M. I. Eléc. (dos años).
8. Howard University (Escuela de arte manual y ciencia aplicada)—I. Eléc. (dos años).
9. Iowa State College (Division de ingeniería)—B. C. en I. Eléc. (cinco años), I. Eléc. (cinco o seis años).
10. Johns Hopkins University (Departamento de ingeniería)—M. I. Eléc. (dos años).
11. Leland Stanford Junior University (Departamento para graduados)—I. Eléc. (un año).
12. Louisiana State University (Escuela para graduados)—I. Eléc. (uno o dos años).
13. Northwestern University (Colegio de ingeniería)—I. Eléc. (cinco años).
14. Ohio State University (Escuela para graduados)—I. Eléc. (cinco a ocho años).
15. Pennsylvania State College (Departamento para graduados)—I. Eléc.
16. Princeton University (Escuela de ingeniería electrica)—I. Eléc. (dos años).
17. Purdue University (Departamento para graduados)—I. Eléc. (un año).
18. Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute (Departamento para graduados)—M. I. Eléc. (un año).
19. Tulane University of Louisiana (Departamento de estudios para graduados) I. Eléc. (uno o dos años).
20. University of Illinois (Escuela para graduados)—I. Eléc. (tres años).
21. University of Michigan (Escuela para graduados)—I. Eléc.
22. University of Minnesota (Colegio de ingeniería y artes mecánicas)—I. Eléc. (cinco años).
23. University of Nebraska (Colegio para graduados)—M. C. en I. Eléc. (un año), I. Eléc. (un año).
24. University of Washington (Colegio de ingeniería)—M. C. en I. Eléc. (un año), I. Eléc. (uno o dos años).
25. University of Wisconsin (Escuela para graduados)—I. Eléc. (uno a tres años).
26. Vanderbilt University (Departamento de ingeniería)—I. Eléc. (un año).
27. Washington University (St. Louis) (Escuela de ingeniería)—I. Eléc. (tres años).
28. Worcester Polytechnic Institute (Departamento para graduados)—I. Eléc. (un año).
29. Yale University (Escuela científica Shéffield)—I. Eléc. (cinco años).

DEPARTAMENTOS, ESCUELAS, COLEGIOS, DIVISIONES O INSTITUTOS DE INGENIERÍA MECÁNICA.

CURSOS PARA ALUMNOS NO GRADUADOS.

Grados: B. C. en I. Mec., B. C., I. Mec., B. I. Mec., B. I.

1. Armour Institute of Technology (Departamento para no graduados)—B. C. en I. Mec. (cuatro años).
2. Case School of Applied Science (Departamento para no graduados)—B. C. en I. Mec. (cuatro años).
3. Catholic University of America (Escuela de ciencias—departamento para no graduados)—B. C. en I. Mec. (cuatro años).
4. College of Hawaii (Departamento para no graduados)—B. C. en I. Mec. (cuatro años).
5. Columbia University (Escuela de ingeniería)—I. Mec. (cuatro años).
6. Cornell University (Colegio Sibley de ingeniería mecánica y de artes mecánicas)—I. Mec. (cuatro o cinco años).
7. George Washington University (Colegio de ingeniería)—B. C. en I. Mec. (cuatro años).
8. Iowa State College (División de ingeniería)—B. C. en I. Mec. (cuatro años).
9. Lehigh University (Departamento para no graduados)—I. Mec. (cuatro años).
10. Massachusetts Institute of Technology (Departamento para no graduados)—B. C. (cuatro años).
11. New York University (Escuela de ciencia aplicada)—B. C. en I. Mec. (cuatro años).
12. Ohio State University (Colegio de ingeniería)—B. I. Mec. (cuatro años).
13. Purdue University (Departamento para no graduados)—B. C. en I. Mec. (cuatro años).
14. Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute (Departamento para no graduados)—I. Mec. (cuatro años).
15. Stevens Institute of Technology—I. Mec. (cuatro años).
16. Tufts College (Escuela de ingeniería)—B. C. en I. Mec. (cuatro años).
17. Tulane University of Louisiana (Colegio de tecnología)—B. I. Mec. (cuatro años).
18. University of Arizona (Departamento para no graduados)—B. C. en I. Mec. (cuatro años).
19. University of Cincinnati (Colegio de ingeniería)—B. C. en I. Mec. (curso teórico de cuatro años)—I. Mec. (curso cooperativo de cinco años).
20. University of Illinois (Colegio de ingeniería)—B. C. en I. Mec. (cuatro años).
21. University of Missouri (Escuela de ingeniería)—I. Mec. (tres años).
22. University of Nebraska (Colegio de ingeniería)—B. C. en I. Mec. (cuatro años).
23. University of Notre Dame (Colegio de ingeniería)—I. Mec. (cuatro años).
24. University of Pennsylvania (Escuela científica Towne)—B. C. en I. Mec. (cuatro años).
25. University of Virginia (Departamento de ingeniería)—I. Mec. (cuatro años).
26. University of Washington (Colegio de ingeniería)—B. C. en I. Mec. (cuatro años). B. C. (cuatro años).
27. University of Wisconsin (Colegio de ingeniería)—B. C. en I. Mec. (cuatro años).
28. Vanderbilt University (Departamento de ingeniería)—B. I. (cuatro años).
29. Washington University (St. Louis) (Escuela de ingeniería)—B. C. en I. Mec. (cuatro años).

CURSOS PARA GRADUADOS.

Grados: B. C. en I. Mec., M. C. en I. Mec., I. Mec., M. I. Mec.

1. Alabama Polytechnic Institute (Departamento para graduados)—I. Mec. (un año).
2. Armour Institute of Technology (Departamento para graduados)—I. Mec. (tres años).

3. Case School of Applied Science (Departamento para graduados)—I. Mec. (tres años).
4. Catholic University of America (Escuela de ciencias—departamento para graduados)—I. Mec. (dos años).
5. College of Hawaii (Departamento para graduados)—I. Mec. (un año).
6. Cornell University (Escuela para graduados)—M. I. Mec. (un año).
7. George Washington University (Escuela de estudios para graduados)—I. Mec. (un año).
8. Harvard University (Escuela de ciencia aplicada para graduados)—M. I. Mec. (dos años), I. Mec. (dos años).
9. Howard University (Escuela de arte manual y ciencia aplicada)—I. Mec. (dos años).
10. Iowa State College (División de ingeniería)—B. C. en I. Mec. (cinco años), I. Mec. (cinco o seis años).
11. Johns Hopkins University (Departamento de ingeniería)—M. I. Mec. (dos años).
12. Leland Stanford Junior University (Departamento para graduados).—I. Mec. (un año).
13. Louisiana State University (Escuela para graduados)—I. Mec. (uno o dos años).
14. New York State University (Escuela de ciencia aplicada)—I. Mec. (un año).
15. Ohio State University (Escuela para graduados)—I. Mec. (cinco a ocho años).
16. Pennsylvania State College (Departamento para graduados)—I. Mec.
17. Purdue University (Departamento para graduados)—I. Mec. (un año).
18. Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute (Departamento para graduados)—M. I. Mec. (un año).
19. Tulane University of Louisiana (Departamento de estudios para graduados)—I. Mec. (uno o dos años).
20. University of California (Escuela para graduados)—I. Med. (tres años).
21. University of Illinois (Escuela para graduados)—I. Mec. (tres años).
22. University of Michigan (Escuela para graduados)—I. Mec.
23. University of Minnesota (Colegio de ingeniería y artes mecánicas)—I. Mec. (cinco años).
24. University of Nebraska (Colegio para graduados)—M. C. en I. Mec. (un año), I. Mec. (un año).
25. University of Washington (Colegio de ingeniería)—M. C. en I. Mec. (un año), I. Mec. (uno o dos años).
26. University of Wisconsin (Escuela para graduados)—I. Mec. (uno a tres años).
27. Vanderbilt University (Departamento de ingeniería)—I. Mec. (un año).
28. Washington University (St. Louis) (Escuela de ingeniería)—I. Mec. (tres años).
29. Worcester Polytechnic Institute (Departamento para graduados)—I. Mec. (un año).
30. Yale University (Escuela científica Sheffield)—I. Mec. (cinco años)).

ESCUELAS, DEPARTAMENTOS O COLEGIOS DE INGENIERÍA METALÚRGICA.

CURSOS PARA ALUMNOS NO GRADUADOS.

Grados: B. C. en Metalurgia, B. C. en I. Met., I. Met., I. Eléc. Met.

1. Case School of Applied Science (Departamento para no graduados)—B. C. en Met. (cuatro años).
2. Columbia University (Escuela de minas)—I. Met. (cuatro años).
3 Lehigh University (Departamento para no graduados)—I. Met. (cuatro años), Eléc. Met. (cuatro años).
4. University of Cincinnati (Colegio de ingeniería)—I. Met. (curso cooperativo de cinco años).
5. University of Missouri (Escuela de minas y metalurgia)—B. C. Met. (cuatro años).
6. University of Washington (Escuela de minas)—B. C. en I. Met. (cuatro años).

CURSOS PARA GRADUADOS.

Grados: Ingeniero metalúrgico:

1. Harvard University (Escuela de ciencia aplicada para graduados)—I. Met. (dos años).
2. University of California (Escuela para graduados)—I. Met. (tres años).
3. University of Minnesota (Escuela de minas)—I. Met. (cinco años).
4. University of Missouri (Escuela de minas y metalurgia)—I. Met. (un año).
5. University of Washington (Colegio de minas)—I. Met. (tres años).
6. Yale University (Escuela científica Shéffield)—I. Met. (cinco años).

COLEGIOS, ESCUELAS, DIVISIONES O DEPARTAMENTOS DE INGENIERÍA DE MINAS.

CURSOS PARA ALUMNOS NO GRADUADOS.

Grados: B. C. en I. M., I. M., B. I. M., B. C., B. C. en Ingeniería de minas de carbón.

1. Case School of Applied Science (Departamento para no graduados)—B. C. en I. M. (cuatro años).
2. Colorado State School of Mines—I. M. (cuatro años).
3. Columbia University (Escuela de minas)—I. M. (cuatro años).
4. Iowa State College (División de ingeniería)—B. C. en I. M. (cuatro años).
5. Lehigh University (Departamento para no graduados)—I. M. (cuatro años).
6. Michigan College of Mines—I. M. (cuatro años), B. C. (cuatro años).
7. Northwestern University (Colegio de ingeniería)—I. M. (cuatro años).
8. Ohio State University (Colegio de ingeniería)—B. I. M. (cuatro años).
9. Pennsylvania State College (Escuela de minas)—B. C. (cuatro años).
10. University of California (Colegio de minería)—B. C. (cuatro o cinco años).
11. University of Illinois (Colegio de ingeniería)—B. C. en I. M. (cuatro años).
12. University of Missouri (Escuela de minas y metalurgia)—B. C. en I. M. (cuatro años).
13. University of Southern California (Colegio de artes liberales—departamento para no graduados)—(curso de dos años).
14. University of Virginia (Departamento de ingeniería)—I. M. (cuatro años.)
15. University of Washington (Colegio de minas)—B. C. en I. M. (cuatro años), B. C. en I. M. de carbón (cuatro años).
16. University of Wisconsin (Colegio de ingeniería)—B. C. en I. M. (cuatro años).

CURSOS PARA GRADUADOS.

Grados: M. C., B. C. en I. M., I. M.

1. Alabama Polytechnic Institute (Departamento para graduados)—I. M. (un año).
2. Case School of Applied Science (Departamento para graduados)—I. M. (tres años).
3. Colorado State School of Mines (Departamento para graduados)—M. C. (un año).
4. Iowa State College (División de ingeniería)—B. C. en I. M. (cinco años), I. M. (cinco o seis años).
5. Leland Stanford Junior University (Departamento para graduados)—I. M. (un año).
6. Pennsylvania State College (Departamento para graduados)—I. M.
7. University of California (Escuela para graduados)—I. M. (tres años).
8. University of Minnesota (Escuela de minas)—I. M. (cinco años).
9. University of Missouri (Escuela de minas y metalurgia)—I. M. (un año).
10. University of Washington (Colegio de minas)—I. M. (tres años), B. C. en I. M. (un año).
11. University of Wisconsin (Escuela para graduados)—I. M. (uno a tres años).
12. Yale University (Escuela científica Shéffield)—I. M. (cinco años).

COLEGIOS, DEPARTAMENTOS O ESCUELAS DE INGENIERÍA MUNICIPAL Y DE SANIDAD.

CURSOS PARA ALUMNOS NO GRADUADOS.

Grados: B. C. en Ingeniería municipal y de sanidad, B. C.

1. Massachusetts Institute of Technology (Departamento para no graduados)—B. C. (cuatro años).
2. University of Illinois (Colegio de ingeniería)—B. C. en Ingeniería municipal y de sanidad (cuatro años).

CURSOS PARA GRADUADOS.

Grado: Ingeniero civil.

1. University of Illinois (Escuela para graduados)—I. Civ. (tres años).

ESCUELAS, COLEGIOS O DEPARTAMENTOS DE INGENIERÍA ARQUITECTÓNICA.

CURSOS PARA ALUMNOS NO GRADUADOS.

Grado: B. C. en Ingeniería arquitectónica.

1. Catholic University of America (Escuela de ciencias—departamento para no graduados)—B. C. en I. Arq. (cuatro años).
2. Clemson Agricultural College (Departamento para no graduados)—B. C. en I. Arq. (cuatro años).
3. University of Illinois (Colegio de ingeniería)—B. C. en I. Arq. (cuatro años).
4. University of Nebraska (Colegio de ingeniería)—B. C. en I. Arq. (cuatro años).
5. University of Notre Dame (Colegio de arquitectura)—B. C. en I. Arq. (cuatro años).
6. University of Pennsylvania (Escuela científica Towne)—B. C. en I. Arq. (cuatro años).

CURSOS PARA GRADUADOS.

Grados: I. arquitecto, M. C. en I. arquitectónica.

1. University of Illinois (Escuela para graduados)—I. Arq. (tres años).
2. University of Minnesota (Colegio de ingeniería y artes mecánicas)—I. Arq. (cinco años).
3. University of Notre Dame (Colegio de arquitectura)—M. C. en I. Arq. (un año).

COLEGIOS O ESCUELAS DE INGENIERÍA FERROVIARIA.

CURSOS PARA ALUMNOS NO GRADUADOS.

Grados: B. C. en I. Civ. ferroviaria, B. C. en I. Eléc. Ferr., B. C. en I. Mec. Ferr.

1. University of Illinois (Colegio de ingeniería)—B. C. en I. Civ. Ferr. (cuatro años), B. C. en I. Eléc. Ferr. (cuatro años), B. C. en I. Mec. Ferr. (cuatro años).

CURSOS PARA GRADUADOS.

Grados: I. Civ., I. Eléc., I. Mec.

1. University of Illinois (Escuela para graduados)—I. Civ. (tres años), I. Eléc. (tres años), I. Mec. (tres años).

DEPARTAMENTO DE INGENIERÍA Y ARQUITECTURA NAVAL.

CURSOS PARA ALUMNOS NO GRADUADOS.

Grado: Bachiller en ciencias.

1. Massachusetts Institute of Technology (Departamento para no graduados)—B. C. (cuatro años).

CURSOS PARA GRADUADOS.

Grados: Arquitecto naval, Ingeniero naval.

1. University of Michigan (Escuela para graduados)—Arq. naval, I. naval.

DEPARTAMENTOS DE INGENIERÍA DE SEGURIDAD CONTRA INCENDIOS.

CURSOS PARA ALUMNOS NO GRADUADOS.

Grado: B. C. en Seguridad contra incendios.

1. Armour Institute of Technology (Departamento para no graduados)—B. C. en Seg. contra incendios (cuatro años).

CURSOS PARA GRADUADOS.

Grado: I. de Seg. contra incendios.

1. Armour Institute of Technology (Departamento para graduados)—I. de Seg. contra incendios (tres años).

COLEGIOS O DIVISIONES DE INGENIERÍA AGRÍCOLA.

CURSOS PARA ALUMNOS NO GRADUADOS.

Grados: B. C. en I. agrícola.

1. Iowa State College (División de agricultura)—B. C. en I. Agr. (cuatro años). (División de ingeniería)—B. C. en I. Agr. (cuatro años).
2. University of Nebraska (Colegio de ingeniería)—B. C. en I. Agr. (cuatro años).

CURSOS PARA GRADUADOS.

Grados: B. C. en I. Agr., M. C. en I. Agr., I. Agr.

1. Iowa State College (División de agricultura)—B. C. en I. Agr. (cinco años). (División de ingeniería)—B. C. en I. Agr. (cinco años), I. Agr. (cinco o seis años).
2. University of Nebraska (Colegio para graduados)—M. C. en I. Agr. (un año), I. Agr. (un año).

DEPARTAMENTOS DE INGENIERÍA ADMINISTRATIVA.

CURSOS PARA ALUMNOS NO GRADUADOS.

Grado: B. C.

1. Massachusetts Institute of Technology (Departamento para no graduados)—B. C. (cuatro años).

AGRICULTURA.

COLEGIOS, DEPARTAMENTOS, DIVISIONES O ESCUELAS DE AGRICULTURA.

CURSOS PARA ALUMNOS NO GRADUADOS.

Grados: B. C., B. Agr. C., B. C. Agr., B. C. en tecnología azucarera, B. C. en floricultura, B. C. en educación agrícola, B. C. en agronomía, B. C. en ganadería, B. C. en industria lechera, B. C. en horticultura, B. C. en entomología, Diplomado en agricultura, Graduado en agricultura.

1. Alabama Polytechnic Institute (Colegio de ciencias agrícolas)—B. C. (cuatro años).
2. Clemson Agricultural College (Departamento para no graduados)—B. C. Agr. cuatro años).
3. College of Hawaii (Departamento para no graduados)—B. C. Agr. (cuatro años), B. C. en Tec. Azuc. (cuatro años).
4. Cornell University (Colegio de agricultura del estado de Nueva York)—B. C. (cuatro años).
5. Iowa State College (Division de agricultura)—B. C. en Ed. Agr. (cuatro años), B. C. Agron. (cuatro años), B. C. en ganadería (cuatro años), B. C. en Ind. lechera (cuatro años), B. C. Hort. (cuatro años), Diploma en Agr. (dos años).
6. Louisiana State University (Departamento de agricultura)—B. C. (cuatro años). (Escuela azucarera Audubon) B. C. (cinco años).

7. Massachusetts Agricultural College (Departamento para no graduados)—B. C. (cuatro años).
8. Ohio State University (Colegio de agricultura)—B. C. Agr. (cuatro años), B. C. Hort. (cuatro años), B. C. Ent. (cuatro años).
9. Pennsylvania State College (Escuela de agricultura)—B. C. (cuatro años).
10. Purdue University (Departamento para no graduados)—B. C. Agr. (cuatro años).
11. University of Arizona (Departamento para no graduados)—B. C. Agr. (cuatro años).
12. University of California (Colegio de agricultura)—B. C. (cuatro años). (Granja experimental de la universidad.)
13. University of Illinois (Colegio de agricultura)—B. C. Agr. (cuatro años), B. C. en Flor. (cuatro años).
14. University of Minnesota (Colegio de agricultura)—B. C. (cuatro años).
15. University of Missouri (Colegio de agricultura)—B. C. Agr. (cuatro años).
16. University of Nebraska (Colegio de agricultura)—B. C. Agr. (cuatro años).
17. University of Wisconsin (Colegio de Agricultura)—B. C. Agr. (cuatro años), Graduado en agricultura (dos años).

CURSOS PARA GRADUADOS.

Grados: B. C. y B. C. en ramo determinado, M. C., M. C. Agr., M. C. en Agr. Cient., Dr. Fil.

1. College of Hawaii (Departamento para graduados)—M. Agr. Cient. (un año).
2. Cornell University (Escuela para graduados)—M. C. Agr. (un año).
3. Iowa State College (División de agricultura)—B. C. y B. C. en ramo determinado (cinco años).
   (División de ciencia industrial)—B. C. y B. C. en ramo determinado (cinco años).
4. Massachusetts Agricultural College (Escuela para graduados)—M. C. (año y medio) Dr. Fil. (tres años).
5. Purdue University (Departamento para graduados)—M. C. Agr. (un año).
6. University of California (Escuela de agricultura tropical para graduados).

ESCUELAS, DIVISIONES O COLEGIOS DE SELVICULTURA.

CURSOS PARA ALUMNOS NO GRADUADOS.

Grados: B. C., B. C. en selvicultura, M. Selv.

1. Iowa State College (Division de agricultura)—B. C. Selv. (cuatro años).
2. Ohio State University (Colegio de agricultura)—B. C. Selv. (cuatro años).
3. University of Michigan (Colegio de literatura, ciencias y artes)—B. C. Selv. (cuatro años).
4. University of Minnesota (Colegio de selvicultura)—B. C. (cuatro años).
5. University of Missouri (Colegio de agricultura)—B. C. Selv. (cuatro años).
6. University of Nebraska (Colegio de agricultura)—B. C. Selv. (cuatro años).
7. University of Washington (Colegio de selvicultura)—B. C. (cuatro años).
8. Yale University (Escuela de selvicultura)—M. Selv. (dos años).

CURSOS PARA GRADUADOS.

Grados: B. C. en selvicultura, M. C. en selvicultura, M. Selv. científica, M. Selv.

1. Cornell University (Escuela para graduados)—M. Selv. (un año).
2. Harvard University (Escuela de ciencia aplicada para graduados)—M. Selv. (dos años).
3. Iowa State College (División de agricultura)—B. C. Selv. (cinco años).
4. University of Michigan (Escuela para graduados)—M. C. Selv. (un año).
5. University of Missouri (Colegio de agricultura)—M. Selv. (cinco años).
6 University of Nebraska (Colegio de agricultura))—M. Selv. (seis años).
7. University of Washington (Colegio de selvicultura)—M. Selv. científica (un año).

COLEGIOS O ESCUELAS DE JARDINERÍA DE PERSPECTIVA.

CURSOS PARA ALUMNOS NO GRADUADOS.

Grados: B. A., B. C. en jardinería de perspectiva, B. C.

1. University of Illinois (Colegio de agricultura)—B. C. en jardinería de perspectiva (cuatro años).
2. University of Michigan (Colegio de literatura, ciencias y artes)—B. A. (cuatro años), B. C. (cuatro años).

CURSOS PARA GRADUADOS.

Grados: M. en dibujo de perspectiva, M. en arquitectura de perspectiva.

1. Cornell University (Escuela para graduados)—M. en dibujo de perspectiva (un año).
2. Harvard University (Escuela de ciencia aplicada para graduados)—M. Arq. Persp. (dos años).
3. University of Michigan (Escuela para graduados)—M. Dib. Persp. (un año).

INDUSTRIA.

COLEGIOS, ESCUELAS, DEPARTAMENTOS O CLASES DE COMERCIO.

CURSOS PARA ALUMNOS NO GRADUADOS.

Grados: B. C., B. C. Com., B. C. en economía, B. A., B. A. Com., B. Fil., B. Fil. en comercio, B. Ad. Com., B. C. Com., Diplomado.

1. Howard University (Colegio comercial).
2. Lehigh University (Departamento para no graduados)—B. C. (cuatro años). (Administración comercial).
3. New York University (Escuela de comercio, contabilidad y finanzas)—B. C. Com. (tres años).
4. Northwestern University (Escuela de comercio)—B. A. Com. (tres años).
5. St. Louis University (Escuela de comercio y finanzas)—B. C. Com. (tres años), Diplomado.
6. Simmons College (Departamento para no graduados)—B. C. (cuatro años). (Curso de secretaría)—Diplomado (curso corto de secretaría).
7. University of California (Colegio de comercio)—B. C. (cuatro años).
8. University of Chicago (Colegio de comercio y administración comercial—Departamento para no graduados)—B. Fil. (cuatro años).
   (Colegio de ciencias religiosas y sociales)—B. Fil. (cuatro años).
9. University of Cincinnati (Colegio de comercio)—B. Com. (cuatro años).
10. University of Missouri (Escuela comercial)—B. C. Com. (dos años).
11. University of Nebraska (Escuela comercial)—B. A. (cuatro años).
12. University of Notre Dame (Colegio de artes y letras)—B. Fil. Com. (cuatro años).
13. University of Pennsylvania (Escuela Wharton de finanza y de comercio)—B. C. Econ. (cuatro años), Diplomado (dos años).
14. University of Washington (Colegio de artes liberales)—B. A. (cuatro años).
15. University of Wisconsin (Curso comercial)—B. A. Com. (cuatro años).

CURSOS PARA GRADUADOS.

Grados: M. A., M. C. Com., M. Ad. Com., Dr. Fil.

1. Dartmouth College (Escuela Amos Tuck de administración y finanzas)—M. C. Com. (dos años).
2. Harvard University (Escuela de administración comercial para graduados)—M. Ad. Com. (dos años).

3. New York University (Escuela de comercio, contabilidad y finanzas)—M. C. Com. (un año).
4. University of Chicago (Colegio de comercio y administración)—M. A. (un año), Dr. Fil. (tres años).

DEPARTAMENTOS, DIVISIONES O ESCUELAS DE ARTE INDUSTRIAL.

CURSOS PARA ALUMNOS NO GRADUADOS.

Grados: B. C., B. C. en artes industriales, B. C. en artes prácticas.

1. Armour Institute of Technology (Departamento para no graduados) —B. C. en A. Ind. (cuatro años).
2. Columbia University (Colegio de pedagogía—escuela de artes prácticas)—B. C. en artes prácticas (cuatro años).
3. Iowa State College (División de ciencia industrial)—B. C. (cuatro años).

CURSOS PARA GRADUADOS.

Grados: M. A., Dr. Fil.

1. Columbia University (Colegio de pedagogía—escuela de artes prácticas)—M. A. (un año), Dr. Fil. (dos años).

ESCUELAS, DIVISIONES, COLEGIOS O DEPARTAMENTOS DE CIENCIA O ECONOMÍA DOMÉSTICA.

CURSOS PARA ALUMNOS NO GRADUADOS.

Grados: B. A., B. C., B. C. en Econ. Dom., B. C. en administración doméstica, B. C. y Diplomado en ciencias o artes domésticas, Diploma en economía doméstica, Certificado.

1. Howard University (Escuela de arte manual y ciencia aplicada)—B. C. y diploma en ciencias o artes domésticas (cuatro años).
2. Iowa State College (División de economía doméstica)—B. C. en Econ. Dom. (cuatro años).
3. Ohio State University (Colegio de agricultura)—B. C. en Econ. Dom. (cuatro años).
4. Pennsylvania State College (Departamento de economía doméstica)—B. C. (cuatro años).
5. Simmons College (Departamento para no graduados)—B. C. (cuatro años), Certificado (curso corto).
6. Tulane University of Louisiana (Colegio conmemorativo de H. Sophie Newcomb)—Diploma en economía doméstica (curso corto).
7. University of Cincinnati (Escuela de artes domésticas)—B. C. (tres años).
8. University of Illinois (Colegio de agricultura)—B. C. en administración doméstica (cuatro años).
9. University of Minnesota (Colegio de agricultura)—B. C. (cuatro años).
10. University of Nebraska (Colegio de agricultura)—B. C. en Econ. Dom. (cuatro años).
11. University of Washington (Colegio de ciencias)—B. C. en Econ. Dom. (cuatro años).
    (Colegio de artes liberales)—B. A. (cuatro años).
12. University of Wisconsin (Colegio de agricultura)—B. C. en Econ. Dom. (cuatro años).

CURSOS PARA GRADUADOS.

Grados: B. C., y B. C. en Econ. Dom., B. C. y B. C. en ramo determinado.

1. Iowa State College (División de economía doméstica)—B. C. y B. C. en Econ. Dom. (cinco años).
    (División de ciencias industriales)—B. C. y B. C. en ramo determinado (cinco años).

ESCUELAS, DEPARTAMENTOS, COLEGIOS O CLASES DE CIENCIA BIBLIOTECARIA.

CURSOS PARA ALUMNOS NO GRADUADOS.

Grados: B. A., B. A. y Diploma de escuela bibliotecaria, B. C., Bachiller en ciencia bibliotecaria, Diplomado, Diploma de escuela bibliotecaria.

1. Howard University (Escuela bibliotecaria).
2. Simmons College (Departamento para no graduados)—B. C. (cuatro años), Diplomado (curso corto).
3. University of Illinois (Escuela bibliotecaria)—B. en ciencia bibliotecaria (dos años).
4. University of Washington (Colegio de artes liberales)—B. A. (cuatro años).
5. University of Wisconsin (Curso bibliotecario)—Diploma de escuela bibliotecaria, B. A. y diploma de escuela bibliotecaria.

DEPARTAMENTOS DE INDUSTRIA TEXTORIA.

CURSOS PARA ALUMNOS NO GRADUADOS.

Grado: B. C. en Industria textoria.

1. Clemson Agricultural College (Departamento para no graduados)—B. C. en Industria textoria (cuatro años).

COLEGIOS, ESCUELAS O CLASES DE PERIODISMO.

CURSOS PARA ALUMNOS NO GRADUADOS.

Grados: B. A., B. A. en periodismo, B. P., B. Lit., B. Fil. P.

1. Columbia University (Escuela de periodismo)—B. Lit. (cuatro años).
2. University of Missouri (Escuela de periodismo)—B. P. (dos años).
3. University of Notre Dame (Colegio de artes y letras)—B. Fil. P. (cuatro años).
4. University of Washington (Colegio de artes liberales)—B. A. (cuatro años).
5. University of Wisconsin (Curso de periodismo)—B. A. P. (cuatro años).

ARTE.

INSTITUTOS, COLEGIOS, ESCUELAS O DEPARTAMENTOS DE BELLAS ARTES.

CURSOS PARA ALUMNOS NO GRADUADOS.

Grados: B. A., B. B. A., Diploma, Diplomado en arte, Certificado.

1. Randolph-Macon Woman's College (Departamento para no graduados)—Certificado.
2. State University of Iowa (Colegio de bellas artes).
3. Tulane University of Louisiana (Colegio conmemorativo de H. Sophie Newcomb)—Diplomado en arte (cuatro años; y también curso corto).
4. University of California (Instituto San Francisco de arte).
5. University of Nebraska (Escuela de bellas artes)—B. A. (cuatro años).
6. University of Oregon (Escuela de bellas artes)—B. A. (cuatro años).
7. University of Southern California (Colegio de bellas artes)—B. B. A. (cuatro años), Diploma (tres años).
8. University of Washington (Colegio de bellas artes)—Certificado (dos años).

CURSOS PARA GRADUADOS.

Grado: B. B. A.

1. Yale University (Escuela de bellas artes)—B. B. A. (cinco años).

ESCUELAS, COLEGIOS O DEPARTAMENTOS DE ARQUITECTURA.

CURSOS PARA ALUMNOS NO GRADUADOS.

Grados: B. B. A., B. C., B. C. Arq., B. Arq., Certificado.

1. Armour Institute of Technology (Departamento para no graduados)—B. C. Arq. (cuatro años).
2. Catholic University of America (Escuela de ciencias—departamento para no graduados)—B. C. Arq. (cuatro años).
3. Columbia University (Escuela de arquitectura)—B. Arq. (cuatro años).
4. Cornell University (Colegio de arquitectura)—B. Arq. (cuatro a seis años).
5. George Washington University (Colegio de ingeniería)—B. C. Arq. (cuatro años).
6. Massachusetts Institute of Technology (Departamento para no graduados)—B. C. (cuatro años).
7. Ohio State University (Colegio de ingeniería)—B. Arq. (cuatro años).
8. Tulane University of Louisiana (Colegio de tecnología)—B. Arq. (cuatro años).
9. University of Illinois (Colegio de ingeniería)—B. C. Arq. (cuatro años).
10. University of Michigan (Colegio de literatura, ciencias y artes)—B. C. Arq. (cuatro años).
11. University of Minnesota (Colegio de ingeniería y artes mecánicas —B. C. (cuatro años).
12. University of Nebraska (Colegio de ingeniería)—B. C. Arq. (cuatro años).
13. University of Notre Dame (Colegio de arquitectura)—B. C. Arq. (cuatro años).
14. University of Oregon (Escuela de arquitectura)—B. C. (cuatro años).
15. University of Pennsylvania (Escuela científica Towne)—B. C. Arq. (cuatro años), Certificado (dos años).
16. University of Washington (Colegio de bellas artes)—B. Arq. (cuatro años), Certificado (cuatro años).
17. Washington University (St. Louis) (Escuela de arquitectura)—B. C. Arq. (cuatro años).
18. Yale University (Escuela de bellas artes)—B. B. A. (cuatro años).

CURSOS PARA GRADUADOS.

Grados: Graduado en arquitectura, M. C. Arq., M. Arq., Arquitecto.

1. Cornell University (Escuela para graduados)—M. Arq. (un año).
2. Harvard University (Escuela de ciencia aplicada para graduados)—M. Arq. (dos años).
3. Ohio State University (Escuela para graduados)—M. Arq. (cinco a ocho años).
4. University of California (Escuela para graduados)—Grad. Arq. (dos años).
5. University of Illinois (Escuela para graduados)—M. Arq. (tres años).
6. University of Michigan (Escuela para graduados)—M. C. Arq. (un año), Arquitecto (un año).
7. University of Minnesota (Colegio de ingeniería y artes mecánicas)—Arquitecto (cinco años.).
8. University of Notre Dame (Colegio de arquitectura)—M. C. Arq. (un año).
9. Washington University (St. Louis) (Escuela de arquitectura)—M. C. Arq. (un año).

COLEGIOS, ESCUELAS, CONSERVATORIOS O DEPARTAMENTOS DE MÚSICA.

CURSOS PARA ALUMNOS NO GRADUADOS.

Grados: B. Mús., Graduado en música, Diplomado en música, Certificado, Certificado de maestro.

1. Howard University (Conservatorio de música) Diploma (cuatro años).
2. Northwestern University (Escuela de música).
3. Randolph-Macon Woman's College (Departamento para no graduados)—Certificado.

4. State University of Iowa (Colegio de música)—B. Mús. (cuatro años).
5. Tulane University of Louisiana (Colegio conmemorativo de H. Sophie Newcomb)—B. Mús. (cuatro años; y también curso corto).
6. University of Illinois (Escuela de música)—B. Mús. (cuatro años), Certificado de maestro (un año).
7. University of Minnesota (Colegio de ciencias, literatura y artes)—B. Mús. (cuatro años).
8. University of Notre Dame (Colegio de música)—B. Mús. (cuatro años).
9. University of Oregon (Escuela de música)—B. Mús. (cuatro años).
10. University of Pennsylvania (Departamento de artes y ciencias para no graduados)—Certificado (cuatro años).
11. University of Southern California (Colegio de música).
12. University of Washington (Colegio de bellas artes)—B. Mús. (cuatro años), Certificado (cuatro años).
13. University of Wisconsin (Escuela de música)—Graduado en música (cuatro años), Certificado (dos años).
14. Yale University (Escuela de música)—Certificado (dos años).

CURSOS PARA GRADUADOS.

Grado: Bachiller en música.

1. University of Pennsylvania (Departamento para graduados)—B. Mús. (un año).
2. Yale University (Escuela de música)—B. Mús. (dos años).

COLEGIOS O ESCUELAS DE ORATORIA.

CURSOS PARA ALUMNOS NO GRADUADOS.

1. Northwestern University (Escuela de oratoria).
2. University of Southern California (Colegio de oratoria).

CIENCIAS.

COLEGIOS, DEPARTAMENTOS, ESCUELAS O CLASES DE QUÍMICA.

CURSOS PARA ALUMNOS NO GRADUADOS.

Grados: B. A., B. C., B. C. Q. Químico, B. Q.

1. Clemson Agricultural College (Departamento para no graduados)—B. C. Q. (cuatro años).
2. Columbia University (Escuela de química)—Q. (cuatro años).
3. Cornell University (Colegio de artes y ciencias)—B. Q. (cuatro años).
4. George Washington University (Colegio Columbian)—B. C. Q. (cuatro años).
5. Lehigh University (Departamento para no graduados)—B. C. Q. (cuatro años), B. C. (cuatro años).
6. Massachusetts Institute of Technology (Departamento para no graduados)—B. C. (cuatro años).
7. State University of Iowa (Colegio de ciencia aplicada)—B. C. (cuatro años).
8. Tufts College (Escuela de artes liberales)—B. C. Q. (cuatro años).
9. University of Arizona (Departamento para no graduados)—B. C. Q. (cuatro años).
10. University of California (Colegio de química)—B. C. (cuatro a cinco años).
11. University of Michigan (Colegio de literatura, ciencias y artes)—B. C. Q. (cuatro años).
12. University of Minnesota (Escuela de química—curso de química aplicada)—B. C. (cuatro años).
    (Escuela de química—curso de química analítica)—B. C. Q. (cuatro años).

13. University of Notre Dame (Colegio de ciencias)—B. C. Q. (cuatro años).
14. University of Pennsylvania (Escuela científica Towne)—B. C. Q. (cuatro años).
15. University of Wisconsin (Curso de química)—B. C. Q. (cuatro años).

CURSOS PARA GRADUADOS

Grado: B. C. Q.

1. University of Minnesota (Escuela de química—curso en artes y química)—B. C. Q. (cinco años).

DEPARTAMENTO DE ELECTROQUÍMICA.

CURSOS PARA ALUMNOS NO GRADUADOS.

Grado: B. C.

1. Massachusetts Institute of Technology (Departamento para no graduados)—B. C. (cuatro años).

ESCUELAS, DEPARTAMENTOS O COLEGIOS DE CIENCIA SOCIAL.

CURSOS PARA ALUMNOS NO GRADUADOS.

Grado: B. C., B. Lit., Certificado.

1. Simmons College (Departamento para no graduados)—B. C. (cuatro años), (Labor social)—Certificado (curso corto).
2. State University of Iowa (Escuela de comercio y ciencias políticas y sociales).
3. University of California (Colegio de ciencias sociales)—B. Lit. (cuatro años).

INSTITUCIONES, COLEGIOS, DEPARTAMENTOS O ESTACIONES DE BIOLOGÍA.

CURSOS PARA ALUMNOS NO GRADUADOS.

Grados: B. C., B. C. en biología.

1. Harvard University (Institución Bussey de biología aplicada).
2. Lehigh University (Departamento para no graduados)—B. C. (cuatro años).
3. Massachusetts Institute of Technology (Departamento para no graduados)—B. C. (cuatro años).
   (Biología y salubridad pública).
4. University of California (Institución Scripps para investigaciones biológicas).
5. University of Notre Dame (Colegio de ciencias)—B. C. Biol. (cuatro años).
6. University of Pennsylvania (Departamento de artes y ciencias para no graduados—B. C. Biol. (tres a cinco años).
7. University of Washington (Estación naval Puget Sound).

DEPARTAMENTOS DE FÍSICA.

CURSOS PARA ALUMNOS NO GRADUADOS.

Grados: B. C., B. C. en física.

1. Case School of Applied Science (Departamento para no graduados)—B. C. en física (cuatro años).
2. Lehigh University (Departamento para no graduados)—B. C. (cuatro años)
3. Massachusetts Institute of Technology (Departamento para no graduados)—B. C. (cuatro años).

DEPARTAMENTOS O COLEGIOS DE GEOLOGÍA.

CURSOS PARA ALUMNOS NO GRADUADOS.

Grados: B. C., B. C. en geología y mineralogía.

1. Lehigh University (Departamento para no graduados)—B. C. (cuatro años).
2. Massachusetts Institute of Technology (Departamento para no graduados)—B. C. (cuatro años).
3. University of Washington (Colegio de minas)—B. C. en geología y mineralogía (cuatro años).

CURSOS PARA GRADUADOS.

Grados: I. M. (geología).

1. University of Minnesota (Escuela de minas)—I. M. (geología) (cinco años).

MEDICINA.

DEPARTAMENTOS, COLEGIOS, ESCUELAS O FACULTADES DE MEDICINA.

CURSOS PARA ALUMNOS NO GRADUADOS.

Grados: Dr. Med., B. C. Med., B. A. y Dr. Med., Dr. Sal. Púb., Dr. Med. tropical, Diplomado en Sal. Púb., B. C., Diplomado en higiene, Certificado en salubridad.

1. Columbia University (Colegio de médicos y cirujanos)—Dr. Med. (cuatro años).
2. Cornell University (Colegio de medicina)—Dr. Med. (cuatro años).
3. Dartmouth College (Colegio de medicina)—(No confiere grado; curso de dos años).
4. George Washington University (Colegio Columbian)—B. C. Med. (cuatro años).
   (Escuela de medicina)—Dr. Med. (cuatro años).
5. Georgetown University (Escuela de medicina)—Dr. Med. (cuatro años).
6. Harvard University (Escuela de medicina)—Dr. Med. (cuatro años).
7. Howard University (Colegio de medicina)—Dr. Med. (cuatro años).
8. Leland Stanford Junior University (Departamento de medicina)—Dr. Med. (cinco años).
9. Massachusetts Institute of Technology (Escuela para empleados de salubridad)—Diplomado en Sal. Púb.
10. New York University (Universidad y colegio de medicina del hospital Bellevue)—Dr. Med. (cuatro años).
11. Northwestern University (Escuela de medicina)—Dr. Med. (cinco años).
12. Ohio State University (Colegio de medicina)—Dr. Med. (cuatro años).
13. St. Louis University (Escuela de medicina)—Dr. Med. (cuatro años).
14. State University of Iowa (Colegio de medicina)—Dr. Med. (cuatro años).
    (Colegio de medicina homeopática)—Dr. Med. (cuatro años).
    (Escuela de enfermeras).
15. Tufts College (Escuela de medicina)—Dr. Med. (cuatro años).
16. Tulane University of Louisiana (Escuela de medicina)—Dr. Med. (cuatro años).
    (Escuela de higiene y medicina tropical)—Dr. Sal. Púb., Dr. Med. Trop.
17. University of Chicago (Colegio de medicina Rust)—Dr. Med. (cinco años).
18. University of Cincinnati (Colegio de medicina)—Dr. Med. (cuatro años) o B. C. (arte y medicina combinadas, cuatro años), Dr. Med. (seis años).
19. University of Illinois (Colegio de medicina)—B. A. y Dr. Med. (seis a ocho años), B. C. y Dr. Med. (seis años).
20. University of Michigan (Escuela de medicina)—Dr. Med. (cuatro años).
    (Escuela de medicina homeopática)—Dr. Med. (cuatro años).
21. University of Minnesota (Escuela de medicina)—B. C. (arte y medicina combinadas) (cuatro años), Dr. Med. (cinco años).
22. University of Missouri (Escuela de medicina)—Certificado (dos años).
23. University of Nebraska (Colegio de medicina)—Dr. Med. (cuatro años).
24. University of Oregon (Escuela de medicina)—Dr. Med. (cuatro años).
25. University of Pennsylvania (Escuela de medicina)—Dr. Med. (cuatro años), Diplomado en higiene (un año).
26. University of Southern California (Colegio de médicos y cirujanos)—Dr. Med. (cuatro años).
27. University of Virginia (Departamento de medicina)—Dr. Med. (cuatro años).
28. University of Wisconsin (Escuela de medicina)—(No confiere grado; curso de dos años).
29. Vanderbilt University (Departamento de medicina)—Dr. Med. (cuatro años).

30. Washington University (St. Louis) (Escuela de medicina)—Dr. Med. (cuatro años).
31. Yale University (Escuela de medicina)—Dr. Med. (cuatro años).

CURSOS PARA GRADUADOS.

Grados: Dr. Med., M. C. Med., Dr. Sal. Púb., Graduado en Sal. Púb., M. C. en Sal. Púb., Diplomado en Sal. Púb., Certificado Sal. Púb.

1. Harvard University (Escuela de medicina)—Dr. Sal. Púb. (un año).
   (Escuela de medicina para graduados)—Dr. Med.
   (Escuela para empleados de salubridad)—Certificado en Sal. Púb.
2. Johns Hopkins University (Facultad de medicina)—Dr. Med. (cuatro años).
3. New York University (Universidad y colegio de medicina del hospital Bellevue)—Dr. Sal. Púb. (un año).
4. State University of Iowa (Colegio para graduados)—M. C. Med. (un año).
5. University of California (Escuela para graduados)—Graduado en Sal. Púb. (dos años).
   (Escuela de medicina)—Dr. Med. (cinco años).
6. University of Michigan (Escuela para graduados)—Dr. Sal. Púb. (dos años), M. C. Sal. Púb. (un año).
7. University of Pennsylvania (Escuela de medicina)—Dr. Sal. Púb. (un año).
8. University of Wisconsin (Escuela de medicina)—Dip. Sal. Púb. (un año).
   (Escuela para graduados)—Dr. Sal. Púb. (dos años).

COLEGIOS, ESCUELAS O DEPARTAMENTOS DE MEDICINA DENTAL.

CURSOS PARA ALUMNOS NO GRADUADOS.

Grados: Dr. Cir. D., Dr. Med. D.

1. George Washington University (Escuela dental)—Dr. Cir. D. (tres años).
2. Georgetown University (Escuela dental)—Dr. Cir. D. (tres años).
3. Harvard University (Escuela dental)—Dr. Med. D.) tres años).
4. Howard University (Escuela dental)—Dr. Cir. D. (tres años).
5. Northwestern University (Escuela dental)—Dr. Cir. D. (cuatro años).
6. Ohio State University (Colegio dental)—Dr. Cir. D (tres años).
7. St. Louis University (Colegio dental St. Louis)—Dr. Cir. D. (tres años).
8. State University of Iowa (Colegio dental)—Dr. Cir. D. (tres años).
9. Tufts College (Escuela dental)—Dr. Med. D. (tres años).
10. Tulane University of Louisiana (Escuela dental)—Dr. Cir. D. (tres años).
11. University of California (Colegio dental)—Dr. Cir. D. (tres años).
12. University of Illinois (Colegio dental)—Dr. Cir. D. (tres años).
13. University of Michigan (Colegio de cirugía dental)—Dr. Cir. D. (tres años).
14. University of Minnesota (Colegio dental)—Dr. Cir. D. (tres años).
15. University of Pennsylvania (Escuela dental)—Dr. Cir. D. (tres años).
16. University of Southern California (Colegio dental)—Dr. Cir. D. (tres años).
17. Vanderbilt University (Departamento dental)—Dr. Cir. D. (tres años).
18. Washington University (St. Louis) (Escuela dental)—Dr. Cir. D. (tres años).

CURSOS PARA GRADUADOS.

Grado: Dr. en Ciencia dental.

1. University of Michigan (Colegio de cirugía dental)—Dr. C. D. (un año).

COLEGIOS, ESCUELAS, DEPARTAMENTOS O CLASES DE FARMACIA.

CURSOS PARA ALUMNOS NO GRADUADOS.

Grados: Diplomado Farm., Grad. Farm., B. Farm., Dr. Farm., Q. Farm., B. C. Farm., B. C.

1. Alabama Polytechnic Institute (Departamento para no graduados)—Q. Farm. (tres años), Grad. Farm. (dos años).
2. Columbia University (Colegio de farmacia—curso de colegio)—Grad. Farm. (dos años).
   (Colegio de farmacia—curso de universidad)—Q. Farm. (tres años).

3. George Washington University (Colegio nacional de farmacia)—Dr. Farm. (tres años).
4. Howard University (Colegio de farmacéuticos)—Dr. Farm. (tres años).
5. Northwestern University (Escuela de farmacia)—Grad. Farm. (dos años con curso de seis meses cada uno), Q. Farm. (dos años de nueve meses cada uno).
6. Ohio State University (Colegio de farmacia)—B. C. Farm. (cuatro años), Q. Farm. (dos años).
7. Purdue University (Departamento para no graduados)—B. C. Farm. (cuatro años), Q. Farm. (dos años).
8. State University of Iowa (Colegio de farmacia)—Grad. Farm. (dos años), Q. Farm. (tres años), B. Farm. (seis años de curso combinado).
9. Tulane University of Louisiana (Escuela de farmacia)—Grad. Farm. (dos años), Q. Farm. (tres años).
10. University of California (Colegio de farmacia)—Grad. Farm. (dos años) Q. Farm. (tres años), B. Farm. (cuatro años).
11. University of Illinois (Escuela de farmacia)—Grad. Farm. (dos años), Q. Farm. (dos años).
12. University of Michigan (Colegio de farmacia)—Grad. Farm. (dos años), Q. Farm. (tres años), B. C. Farm. (cuatro años).
13. University of Minnesota (Colegio de farmacia)—Grad. Farm. (dos años), Q. Farm. (tres años), B. C. Farm. (cuatro años).
14. University of Nebraska (Colegio de farmacia)—Grad. Farm. (dos años), Q. Farm. (tres años), B. C. (cuatro años).
15. University of Notre Dame (Colegio de ciencias)—B. C. Farm. (cuatro años), Grad. Farm. (dos años), Q. Farm. (tres años).
16. University of Southern California (Colegio de farmacia)—Q. Farm. (dos años).
17. University of Washington (Colegio de farmacia)—Q. Farm. (dos años), B. C. (cuatro años).
18. University of Wisconsin (Curso de farmacia)—Grad. Farm. (dos años), B. C. Farm. (cuatro años).
19. Vanderbilt University (Departamento de farmacia)—Grad. Farm. (dos años), B. C. Farm. (cuatro años).

CURSOS PARA GRADUADOS.

Grados: M. C. Farm., B. C. Farm., B. Farm., M. Farm., Dr. Farm.

1. Alabama Polytechnic Institute (Departamento para graduados)—M. C. Farm. (un año).
2. Columbia University (Colegio de farmacia—curso para graduados)—B. C. Farm. (un año), Dr. Farm. (tres años).
3. Tulane University of Louisiana (Escuela de farmacia)—Dr. Farm. (un año).
4. University of Minnesota (Colegio de farmacia)—M. Farm. (cinco años), Dr. Farm. (seis años).
5. University of Southern California (Colegio de farmacia)—B. Farm. (un año).
6. University of Washington (Colegio de farmacia)—M. C. Farm. (un año).

DEPARTAMENTOS, COLEGIOS, DIVISIONES O ESCUELAS DE VETERINARIA.

CURSOS PARA ALUMNOS NO GRADUADOS.

Grado: Doctor en Veterinaria.

1. Alabama Polytechnic Institute (Departamento para no graduados)—Dr. Vet. (tres años).
2. Cornell University (Colegio veterinario del estado de Nueva York)—Dr. Vet. (tres años).
3. George Washington University (Colegio de medicina veterinaria)—Dr. Vet. (cuatro años).

4. Iowa State College (División de veterinaria)—Dr. Vet. (cuatro años).
5. New York University (Colegio de veterinaria del estado de Nueva York) Dr. Vet. (tres años).
6. Ohio State University (Colegio de veterinaria)—Dr. Vet. (cuatro años).
7. University of Pennsylvania (Escuela de veterinaria)—Dr. Vet.

CURSOS PARA GRADUADOS.

Grados: B. C. y Dr. Vet.

1. Iowa State College (División de ciencia industrial)—B. C. y Dr. Vet. (seis años).

COLEGIOS, ESCUELAS, INSTITUTOS O DEPARTAMENTOS DE DERECHO.

CURSOS PARA ALUMNOS NO GRADUADOS.

Grados: B. L., B. Der. Civ., B. Jur., Dr. Jur.

1. Catholic University of America (Escuela de derecho—departamento para no graduados)—B. L. (tres años).
2. Columbia University (Escuela de derecho)—B. L. (tres años).
3. Cornell University (Colegio de derecho)—B. L. (cuatro años).
4. George Washington University (Escuela de derecho)—B. L. (tres años.)
5. Georgetown University (Escuela de derecho)—B. L. (tres años.)
6. Harvard University (Escuela de derecho)—B. L. (tres años).
7. Howard University (Escuela de derecho)—B. L. (tres años).
8. Leland Stanford Junior University (Escuela de derecho)—B. L. (tres años), Dr. Jur. (tres años).
9. Louisiana State University (Escuela de derecho)—B. L. (tres años).
10. New York University (Escuela de derecho)—B. L. (tres años), Dr. Jur. (tres años).
11. Northwestern University (Escuela de derecho)—B. L. (tres años), B. Jur. (tres años).
12. Ohio State University (Colegio de derecho)—B. L. (tres años), Dr. Jur. (tres años).
13. St. Louis University (Instituto de derecho)—B. L. (tres o cuatro años).
14. State University of Iowa (Colegio de derecho)—B. L. (tres años).
15. Tulane University of Louisiana (Colegio de derecho)—B. L. (tres años).
16. University of California (Colegio de derecho Hastings)—B. L. (tres años).
17. University of Chicago (Escuela de derecho)—B. L. (tres años).
18. University of Illinois (Escuela de derecho)—B. L. (tres años). Dr. Jur. (tres años).
19. University of Michigan (Escuela de derecho)—B. L. (tres años).
20. University of Minnesota (Escuela de derecho) B. L. (tres años).
21. University of Missouri (Escuela de derecho)—B. L. (tres años).
22. University of Nebraska (Colegio de derecho)—B. L. (tres años).
23. University of Notre Dame (Colegio de derecho)—B. L. (tres años).
24. University of Oregon (Escuela de derecho)—B. L. (tres años), Dr. Jur. (tres años). (Escuela nocturna de derecho)—B. L. (tres años).
25. University of Pennsylvania (Escuela de derecho)—B. L. (tres años).
26. University of Southern California (Colegio de derecho)—B. L. (tres años), Dr. Jur. (tres años).
27. University of Virginia (Departamento de derecho)—B. L. (tres años).
28. University of Washington (Escuela de derecho)—B. L. (tres años).
29. University of Wisconsin (Escuela de derecho)—B. L. (tres años y medio).
30. Vanderbilt University (Departamento de derecho)—B. L. (tres años).
31. Washington University (St. Louis) (Escuela de derecho St. Louis)—B. L. (tres años).
32. Yale University (Escuela de derecho)—B. L. (tres años), B. Der. Civ. tres años).

CURSOS PARA GRADUADOS.

Grados: M. L., Dr. L. M. Der. Civ., Dr. Der. Civ., Dr. Jur., M. en ley de patentes.

1. Catholic University of America (Escuela de derecho—departamento para graduados)—M. L. (un año), M. Der. Civ. (un año), Dr. Jur. (dos años), Dr. Der. Civ. (dos años).
2. Columbia University (Escuela de derecho)—M. L. (un año).
3. George Washington University (Escuela de derecho)—M. L. (un año), M. en ley de patentes (un año).
4. Georgetown University (Escuela de derecho)—M. L. (un año), M. en ley de patentes (un año).
5. Harvard University (Escuela de derecho)—Dr. Jur. (un año).
6. New York University (Escuela de derecho)—M. L. (un año).
7. Northwestern University (Escuela de derecho)—M. L. (un año), Dr. Jur. (un año).
8. St. Louis University (Instituto de derecho)—M. L. (un año).
9. University of California (Escuela para graduados)—Dr. Jur. (dos años).
10. University of Chicago (Escuela de derecho)—Dr. Jur. (dos o tres años).
11. University of Michigan (Escuela de derecho)—M. L. (un año), Dr. Jur. (tres años).
12. University of Notre Dame (Colegio de derecho)—M. L. (un año), Dr. L. (tres años), Dr. Der. Civ. (tres años).
13. University of Pennsylvania (Escuela de derecho)—M. L. (un año).
14. University of Southern California (Colegio de derecho)—M. L. (un año).
15. Yale University (Escuela de derecho)—M. L. (un año), Dr. Der. Civ. (dos años), Dr. Jur. (un año).

COLEGIOS, ESCUELAS O SEMINARIOS DE TEOLOGÍA.

CURSOS PARA ALUMNOS NO GRADUADOS.

Grados: B. T., B. T. S., B. Der. Can., Diplomado.

1. Catholic University of America (Escuela de ciencias sagradas)—B. T. S., B. Der. Can.
2. Harvard University (Escuela de teología)—B. T. S. (tres años).
3. Howard University (Escuela de teología) (sin denominación religiosa especial)—B. T. (tres años), Diploma (tres años).
4. St. Louis University (Escuela católica de teología).
5. Tufts College (Escuela teológica Crane) (universalista)—B. T. (cinco años).
6. University of Chicago (Seminario inglés teológico)—No confiere grado; cuatro años de estudios en clases de verano).
7. University of Southern California (Colegio metodista de teología)—B. T. (tres años).
8. Yale University (Escuela de religiones)—B. T. (tres años).

CURSOS PARA GRADUADOS.

Grados: Lic. T. S., Dr. T. S., M. T. S., Lic. Der. Can., Dr. Der. C. B. T., Dr. T., M. A., Dr. Fil.

1. Catholic University of America (Escuela de ciencias sagradas)—Lic. T. S. (dos años), Lic. Der. Can. (dos años), Dr. T. S. (cuatro años), Dr. Der. Can. (cuatro años).
2. Harvard University (Escuela de teología)—M. T. S. (un año), Dr. T. (dos años).
3. Northwestern University (Escuela para graduados)—M. T. S. (tres años).
   (Instituto bíblico Gárrett)—B. T. (tres años).
4. University of Chicago (Escuela de teología para graduados)—M. A. (un año), B. T. (tres años), Dr. Fil. (cuatro años).
5. Vanderbilt University (Departamento bíblico)—B. T. (tres años), Diploma (tres años).

COLEGIOS, ESCUELAS O CLASES DE EDUCACIÓN.

CURSOS PARA ALUMNOS NO GRADUADOS.

Grados: B. A., B. A. Ed., B. A. y Diploma de bachiller en educación, B. C., B. C. en pedagogía, B. C. Ed., B. C. y diploma de bachiller en educación, B. Fil. Ed., B. Ed., Diploma, Certificado en pedagogía, Certificado, Certificado primario de kindergarten, Certificado de artes manuales, Certificado de economía y artes domésticas, Certificado de artes gráficas y plásticas, Certificado de superintendente.

1. Columbia University (Colegio de pedagogía—escuela de artes prácticas)—B. C. Ed. (cuatro años).
2. George Peabody College for Teachers (Escuela de artes prácticas y escuela de educación, combinadas)—B. C. (cuatro años).
   (Escuela Seaman A. Knapp de vida campestre y escuela de educación, combinadas)—B. C. (cuatro años).
3. George Washington University (Colegio de pedagogía)—B. A. y diploma de B. Ed. (sesenta y dos menciones; sesenta menciones representan cuatro años).
4. Howard University (Colegio de pedagogía)—B. A. y diploma de B. Ed. (cuatro años), B. C. y diploma de B. Ed. (cuatro años).
5. Louisiana State University (Colegio de pedagogía)—B. A. (cuatro años).
6. New York University (Escuela de pedagogía)—B. C. Ped. (tres años).
7. Ohio State University (Colegio de educación)—B. C. Ed. (cuatro años).
8. Simmons College (Departamento para no graduados—curso de educación industrial)—Certificado (curso corto).
9. State University of Iowa (Colegio de educación)—Certificado (cuatro años).
10. Tulane University of Louisiana (Colegio de artes y ciencias)—B. A. Ed. (cuatro años).
    (Colegio conmemorativo de H. Sophie Newcomb)—B. A. Ed. (cuatro años).
11. University of Chicago (Escuela de educación—El colegio)—B. Fil. Ed. (cuatro años), B. A. Ed. (cuatro años), B. C. Ed. (cuatro años), Certificado primario de kindergarten (dos años), Certificado de artes manuales (dos años), Certificado de economía y artes domesticas (dos años), Certificado de artes gráficas y plásticas (dos años), Certificado de superintendente (un año).
12. University of Cincinnati (Colegio de pedagogía)—B. C. (cuatro años).
13. University of Illinois (Escuela de educación)—(No confiere grado especial; dos años de estudios).
14. University of Minnesota (Colegio de educación)—B. C. Ed. (dos años).
15. University of Missouri (Escuela de educación)—B. C. Ed. (dos años), Certificado en pedagogía.
16. University of Nebraska (Colegio de pedagogía)—Diploma de maestro de liceo (dos años), Certificado de maestro de universidad (dos años).
17. University of Oregon (Escuela de educación)—B. A. (cuatro años).
18. University of Pennsylvania (Escuela de educación)—B. C. Ed. (cuatro años).
19. University of Washington (Colegio de educación)—B. Ed. (cuatro años), Diploma.
20. University of Wisconsin (Curso de enseñanza para maestros)—B. A., B. C., Certificado.

CURSOS PARA GRADUADOS.

Grados: M. A., M. A. Ed., M. A. y diploma de M. Ed., M. C., M. C., Ed., M. Ped., Dr. Ped., Dr. Fil. Diploma de graduado en pedagogía.

1. Columbia University (Colegio de pedagogía—escuela de educación)—M. A. (un año), Dr. Fil. (dos años).
   (Colegio de pedagogía—escuela de artes prácticas)—M. A. (un año), Dr. Fil. (dos años).
2. George Peabody College for Teachers (Departamento para graduados)—M. A. (un año), Dr. Fil. (dos años).

3. Howard University (Colegio de pedagogía)—M. A. y diploma de maestro en Ed. (un año).
4. New York University (Escuela de pedagogía)—M. Ped. (tres años), Dr. Ped. (cinco años).
5. University of Chicago (Escuela de artes y literatura para graduados y escuela Ogden de ciencias)—M. A. (un año), M. C. (un año), Dr. Fil. (tres años).
6. University of Nebraska (Colegio para graduados)—Diploma de graduado en pedagogía.
7. University of Pennsylvania (Escuela para graduados)—M. A. (un año), Dr. Fil. (tres años).
8. University of Washington (Colegio de educación)—M. A. Ed. (un año), M. C. Ed. (un año).

SECCIÓN V.

TABLA DE LOS GRADOS QUE SE MENCIONAN EN ESTE BOLETÍN Y DE LAS ABREVIATURAS USADAS PARA DESIGNARLOS.

BACHILLERATOS.

B. A	Bachiller en Artes.
B. Agr	Bachiller en Agricultura.
B. Arq	Bachiller en Arquitectura.
B. A. Ed	Bachiller en Artes de Educación.
B. Ad. Com	Bachiller en Administración Comercial.
B. Q	Bachiller en Química.
B. I. Q	Bachiller en Ingeniería química.
B. C. Com	Bachiller en Ciencia comercial.
B. I. Cer	Bachiller en Ingeniería cerámica.
B. T	Bachiller en Teología.
B. I. Elec	Bachiller en Ingeniería eléctrica.
B. Ed	Bachiller en Educación.
B. B. A	Bachiller en Bellas Artes.
B. I	Bachiller en Ingeniería.
B. I. M	Bachiller en Ingeniería de minas.
B. I. Mec	Bachiller en Ingeniería mecánica.
B. P	Bachiller en Periodismo.
B. Lit	Bachiller en Literatura.
B. C. Bib	Bachiller en Ciencia bibliotecaria.
B. Mus	Bachiller en Música.
B. Der. Civ	Bachiller en Derecho civil
B. Ped	Bachiller en Pedagogía.
B. C	Bachiller en Ciencias.
B. Agr. Cient	Bachiller en Agricultura científica.
B. C. Agr	Bachiller de Ciencias en Agricultura.
B. C. en Ed. Agr	Bachiller de Ciencias en Educación agrícola.
B. C. en I. Agr	Bachiller de Ciencias en Ingeniería agrícola.
B. C. Agron	Bachiller de Ciencias en Agronomía.
B. C. en Ganadería.	
B. C. Arq	Bachiller de Ciencias en Arquitectura.
B. C. en I. Arq	Bachiller de Ciencias en Ingeniería arquitectónica.
B. C. Biol	Bachiller de Ciencias en Biología.
B. C. Cer	Bachiller de Ciencias en Cerámica.
B. C. Q	Bachiller de Ciencias en Química.
B. C. en I. Civ	Bachiller de Ciencias en Ingeniería civil.
B. C. en Ingeniería de Minas de Carbón.	
B. C. Com	Bachiller de Ciencias en Comercio.
B. C. en industria lechera.	
B. C. Econ	Bachiller de Ciencias en Economía.
B. C. Ed	Bachiller de Ciencias en Educación.
B. C. en I. Elec	Bachiller de Ciencias en Ingeniería eléctrica.

B. C. en Ingeniería de Seguridad contra incendios.	
B. C. en Floricultura.	
B. C. Selv	Bachiller de Ciencias en Selvicultura.
B. C. en Geología y Mineralogía.	
B. C. en Econ. dom	Bachiller de Ciencias en Economia doméstica.
B. C. en Horticultura.	
B. C. en Administración doméstica.	
B. C. en A. Ind	Bachiller de Ciencias en Artes industriales.
B. C. en Jardinería de perspectiva.	
B. C. en I. Mec	Bachiller de Ciencias en Ingeniería mecánica.
B. C. Jur	Bachiller en Jurisprudencia.
B. C. Med	Bachiller de Ciencias en Medicina.
B. C. en I. Met	Bachiller de Ciencias en Ingeniería metalúrgica.
B. C. en I. M	Bachiller de Ciencias en Ingeniería de minas.
B. C. en I. Mun. y San	Bachiller de Ciencias en Ingeniería municipal y sanitaria.
B. C . Ped	Bachiller de Ciencias en Pedagogía.
B. C. Farm	Bachiller de Ciencias en Farmacia.
B. C. en Ingeniería civil ferroviaria.	
B. C. en Ingeniería eléctrica ferroviaria.	
B. C. en Ingeniería ferroviaria.	
B. C. en Ingeniería mecánica ferroviaria.	
B. C. en Dib. Const	Bachiller en Dibujo constructivo.
B. C. en Tec. Azuc	Bachiller de Ciencias en Tecnología azucarera.
B. C. en Industria textoria.	
Graduado en Música.	
B. Der. Can	Bachiller en Derecho canónico.
B. L.	Bachiller en Leyes.
B. Fil	Bachiller en Filosofía.
B. Fil. Com	Bachiller de Filosofía en Comercio.
B. Fil. P	Bachiller de Filosofía en Periodismo.
Q. Farm	Químico farmacéutico.
Grad. Farm	Graduado en farmacia.
B. Farm	Bachiller en Farmacia.
B. T. S.	Bachiller en Teología sagrada.

GRADOS SUPERIORES.

I. Agr	Ingeniero agrícola.
M. A.	Maestro en Artes.
Arq	Arquitecto.
I. Arq	Ingeniero arquitecto.
I. Cer	Ingeniero en Cerámica.
I. Q.	Ingeniero químico.
I. Civ	Ingeniero civil.
Dip. Sal. Púb	Diplomado en Salubridad pública.
Dip. Hig	Diplomado en Higiene.
Dr. Der. Civ	Doctor en Derecho civil.
Dr. Cir. D	Doctor en Cirugía dental.

Dr. C. D	Doctor en Ciencia dental.
Dr. I	Doctor en Ingeniería.
Dr. Med. D	Doctor en Medicina dental.
Dr. C	Doctor en Ciencias.
Dr. Sal. Púb	Doctor en Salubridad pública.
Dr. Vet	Doctor en veterinaria.
I. Elec	Ingeniero eléctrico.
I. M	Ingeniero de Minas.
I. Elec. Met	Ingeniero electrometalúrgico.
Ingeniero de Seguridad contra incendios.	
Grad. Arq.	Graduado en arquitectura.
Grad. Sal. Púb	Graduado en salubridad pública.
Dr. Der. Can	Doctor en Derecho canónico.
Lic. Der. Can	Licenciado en Derecho canónico.
Dr. Jur	Doctor en Jurisprudencia.
Dr. Lit	Doctor en Literatura.
Dr. L	Doctor en Leyes.
M. L	Maestro en Leyes.
I. Nav	Ingeniero Naval.
M. Arq	Maestro en Arquitectura.
M. Ad. Com	Maestro en Administración comercial.
M. I. Civ	Maestro en Ingeniería civil.
M. Der. Civ	Maestro en Derecho civil.
M. C. Com	Maestro en Ciencia comercial.
Dr. Med	Doctor en Medicina.
I. Mec	Ingeniero mecánico.
M. I. Elec	Maestro en Ingeniería eléctrica.
I. Met	Ingeniero metalúrgico.
M. Selv	Maestro en Selvicultura.
M. Lit	Maestro en Literatura.
M. Arq. Persp	Maestro en Arquitectura de perspectiva.
M. Dib. Persp	Maestro en Dibujo de perspectiva.
M. I. Mec	Maestro en Ingeniería mecánica.
M. L. Pat	Maestro en Ley de patentes.
M. Ped	Maestro en Pedagogía.
M. Agr. Cient	Maestro en Agricultura científica.
M. C	Maestro en Ciencias.
M. C. Agr	Maestro de Ciencias en Agricultura
M. C. Arq	Maestro de Ciencias en Arquitectura.
M. C. I	Maestro de Ciencias en Ingeniería.
M. C. Selv	Maestro de Ciencias en Selvicultura.
M. C. en I. M	Maestro de Ciencias en Ingeniería de Minas.
M. C. en Salubridad pública.	
M. T. S	Maestro en Teología sagrada.
Arq. Nav	Arquitecto naval.
Dr. Ped	Doctor en Pedagogía.
M. Ped	Maestro en Pedagogía.
Dr. Fil	Doctor en Filosofía.
M. Fil	Maestro en Filosofía.
Dr. Farm	Doctor en Farmacia.
M. Farm	Maestro en Farmacia.
Dr. Jur	Doctor en Jurisprudencia.
Dr. T. S	Doctor en Teología sagrada.
Lic. T	Licenciado en Teología.

SECCIÓN SEXTA.

ORGANIZACIÓN Y CONDICIONES DE LOS COLEGIOS Y UNIVERSIDADES.

Sería imposible presentar dentro de los límites de este boletín, aun cuando fuera brevemente, todas las instituciones acreditadas y de importancia que puede frecuentar con éxito el estudiante extranjero que busca educación general o profesional. Se han seleccionado aquellas que han recibido hasta ahora el mayor número de estudiantes de fuera o las que, por uno u otro motivo, ofrecen mayores ventajas a los jóvenes de naciones extranjeras.

Existen, sin embargo, muchas otras instituciones de igual clase que no están incluídas en esta clasificación porque su situación constituye un obstáculo para la comodidad de los estudiantes extranjeros, o proque pertenecen al mismo tipo de colegios o universidades que representan las instituciones descritas. Los estudiantes de fuera que se interesen por instituciones que no se mencionen en esta sección pueden dirigirse al Oficina de Educación que les impartirá con gusto completa e imparcial información.

ALABAMA POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE, Auburn, Alabama, ciudad de 1,400 habitantes. Institución "concesionaria" fundada en 1872; mixta.

Cursos para estudiantes no graduados.
  Admisión: 14 unidades; 8 prescritas: 3½ matemáticas, 3 inglés, 1½ historia.
    B. C.—Curso general de cuatro años, como sigue:
      Colegio de Ingeniería y Minas: Ingeniería civil, eléctrica, química, mecánica y de minas; química y metalurgia, arquitectura.
      Colegio de Ciencia Rural: Agricultura, horticultura, cría de animales, agronomía, botánica y farmacia.
    Dr. Med. Vet.—Curso de tres años en medicina veterinaria.
    Q. Farm.—Curso de tres años en farmacia.
    Farm. G.—Curso de dos años en farmacia. Se requiere el comprobante de la labor de un año en high-school para la admisión a este curso.
Cursos para graduados:
  Admisión: Grado de bachiller obtenido en colegio calificado.
  Grados:
    M. C.—Estudio de un año en cursos posteriores a los grados; tesis.
    M. C. Farm.—Estudio de un año en cursos posteriores a los grados en los departamentos de química y farmacia.
    I. Civ., I. Elec., I. Mec., I. Q., I. I. M.—Estudio de un año en cursos posteriores a los grados; tesis. Estos grados se confieren igualmente a los graduados en institutos, con cuatro años de experiencia profesional en posición expectable y que presenten una tesis.

Gastos:

Instrucción (libre para los habitantes de Alabama)	$20
Alojamiento y alimentación, de $13 a $17.50 por mes.	
Gasto total al año	$250

Facultad, 54.

Estudiantes 820, de los cuales 10 son extranjeros.

Nota de especial interés para los estudiantes extranjeros.—En el último año del curso de agricultura se proporciona instrucción sobre el cultivo y clasificación del algodón y otros productos meridionales como la caña de azúcar, el tabaco, el arroz, etc., y sobre la instalación y manejo de maquinarias para las haciendas.

En combinación con la instrucción de ingeniería eléctrica se ofrece un curso de un año en telegrafía inalámbrica.

Un laboratorio perfectamente equipado y grandes facilidades clínicas ofrecen vasto campo para la labor práctica en el colegio de cirugía y medicina veterinaria.

UNIVERSITY OF ARIZONA, Tucson, Arizona, ciudad de 18,000 habitantes situada sobre la línea principal del ferrocarril "Southern Pacific" y del sistema de "El Paso & Southwestern." Institución concesionaria, mixta, fundada en 1885.

Admisión: 15 unidades, 9½ prescritas; 3 inglés, 2½ matemáticas, 1 historia, 1 ciencias, 2 idiomas. No se prescribe la unidad de historia para el ingreso a la escuela de ingeniería, pero se agrega, en cambio, ½ unidad de geometría del espacio. La física y química son ciencias prescritas para la admisión al curso de mineralogía, ingeniería y metalurgia.

Cursos para alumnos no graduados, cuatro años:

	Grados.
General	B. A. y B. C.
Agricultura	B. C. en Agricultura.
Química	B. C. en Química.
Ingeniería civil	B. C. en Ingeniería civil.
Ingeniería eléctrica	B. C. en Ingeniería eléctrica.
Ingeniería mecánica	B. C. en Ingeniería mecánica.
Mineralogía y metalurgia	B. C. en Mineralogía, ingeniería y metalurgia.

Cursos para graduados:

Admisión: Grado de bachiller en un colegio clasificado.

Grados: M. C. y M. A.—Estudio de un año en cursos posteriores a los grados; tesis

El estudiante que haya obtenido el grado de bachiller en ciencias en mineralogía, ingeniería y metalurgia puede alcanzar el grado de ingeniero de minas con un año de estudio en el curso superior a los grados.

Gastos:

Instrucción (libre para los habitantes de Arizona)	$30
Pagos incidentales	10
Alimentación por mes	20
Alojamiento (dormitorio en el colegio por año)	25
Gasto total al año	316

Facultad, 48.

Estudiantes 302, de los cuales 3 son extranjeros.

Nota de interés especial para los estudiantes extranjeros.—Con motivo de la gran diversidad de su formación rocosa y de sus depósitos minerales, ofrece el sur de Arizona un vasto campo para estudios geológicos.

Antes de comenzar los estudios superiores en ingeniería de minas deben haber tenido todos los alumnos por lo menos seis semanas de labor práctica de mineralogía y metalurgia.

El departamento de agricultura insiste especialmente sobre las materias que pueden interesar a los ciudadanos en un clima seco como el de Arizona. Puede hacerse mención de las clases sobre productos de granja y hortalizas, cultivo de las plantas, explotación de zonas áridas, tratamiento y fertilización del terreno, citrus y pequeños frutos, y administración de granjas.

LELAND STANFORD JUNIOR UNIVERSITY, Stanford University, California, ciudad de 1,500 habitantes cerca de Palo Alto y San Francisco. Fundada en 1885; mixta.

Departamento para alumnos no graduados.
Admisión: Certificado de escuela secundaria mostrando que se ha terminado un curso por lo menos de 15 unidades.
Grados: B. A.—Terminación de un curso de 120 unidades y recomendación de la facultad sin tener en cuenta el tiempo que se hubiere empleado; 40 unidades representan la labor ordinaria de un año.
Departamento para graduados.
Admisión: El grado de bachiller obtenido en colegio calificado.
Grados:
M. A.—Un año de estudio posterior a los grados; tesis.
Ingeniero (civil, mecánico, eléctrico, químico o de minas)—Un año de labor posterior a los grados en el departamento de ciencias aplicadas; tesis.
Dr. Farm.—Tres años de estudio posterior a los grados; tesis.
Departamento de Medicina (San Francisco).
Admisión: Tres años de estudio de colegio incluyendo física, química, biología y conocimiento del francés o alemán.
Grados: Dr. Med.—Curso de cuatro años y un año más de práctica.
Escuela de Jurisprudencia.
Admisión: Dos años de curso de colegio.
Grados:
B. Jur.—Curso de tres años.
Dr. Jur.—Curso de tres años. Para el grado de doctor se requiere haber obtenido de antemano el grado de bachiller en un colegio calificado.
Gastos:
Instrucción (libre excepto en las materias indicadas a continuación). Los estudiantes no graduados pagarán una cuota incidental de $30 por año, de la cual están exentos los graduados.

Departamento de Jurisprudencia	$100
Departamento de Medicina	150
Aposento y alimentación en la universidad, mensualmente	28
Aposento y alimentación fuera de la universidad, mensualmente	25–35
Gasto total al año, inclusive la instrucción en medicina y jurisprudencia	350–500

Facultad, 201.
Estudiantes 1,906, de los cuales 50 son de naciones extranjeras.

Especialmente interesante para los estudiantes extranjeros.—Para el curso de medicina que requiere cinco años de práctica como requisito para obtener el grado, ofrece San Francisco excelentes facilidades clínicas y de hospital. Diez internos se nombran anualmente para el hospital Lane.

El departamento de jurisprudencia ofrece cursos de grado superior.

Debe hacerse también mención especial de la labor de geología y biología que incluye cursos de verano en el laboratorio biológico marino, de los cursos en ingeniería mecánica, química, historia y pedagogía.

UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA, Berkeley, California, ciudad de 49,331 habitantes, situada a treinta y cinco minutos de San Francisco por ferrocarril. Institución concesionaria fundada en 1868; mixta.

Departamentos para alumnos no graduados: cursos de cuatro años a menos de determinación posterior.

Admisión:

- I. Colegios de letras, ciencias sociales, ciencias naturales y comercio. Curso de cinco años en mecánica, mineralogía, ingeniería y química; 45 unidades, 30 prescritas: 6 inglés, 6 matemáticas, 3 historia, 3 trabajo de laboratorio, 6 idiomas extranjeros, 6 adicionales en idiomas extranjeros y 6 adicionales en trabajo de laboratorio o en matemáticas de grado superior en cualquiera combinación.[1]
- II. Colegio de agricultura; 45 unidades, 27 prescritas: 6 inglés, 6 matemáticas, 6 idiomas extranjeros, 6 ciencias (física y química), y 3 historia.
- III. Curso de cuatro años en colegios de mecánica, mineralogía, química e ingeniería civil; 45 unidades, todas prescritas: 6 inglés, 12 matemáticas, 3 historia, 6 ciencias (física y química), 6 dibujo, 6 idiomas, 6 adicionales en idiomas o inglés superior.

Grados:

- Colegios de cultura general—
  - Colegio de Letras—B. A.
  - Colegio de Ciencias Sociales—B. Lit.
  - Colegio de Ciencias Naturales—B. C.
- Colegios de ciencia aplicada—
  - Colegio de Comercio—B. C.
  - Colegio de Agricultura—B. C.
  - Colegio de Mecánica (ingeniería mecánica y eléctrica)—B. C.
  - Colegio de Mineralogía—B. C.
  - Colegio de Ingeniería Civil—B. C.
  - Colegio de Química—B. C.

Hay un curso de cinco años en los colegios de mecánica, mineralogía, ingeniería civil y química, que ofrece mayor cultura y enseñanza profesional más amplia de la que es posible obtener en el de cuatro años, pero ambos cursos culminan en el mismo grado.

Para estudiantes no graduados se ofrecen cursos en arquitectura, pedagogía y jurisprudencia. Los alumnos de estos cursos están también matriculados en los colegios de cultura general, sujetos a iguales requisitos de admisión y reciben el grado que otorga el colegio en el cual se hallan inscritos.

Escuela para graduados:

Admisión: Grado de bachiller en un colegio calificado.

Grados:

- M. A., M. Lit., M. C.—Un año de estudios posteriores a la graduación; tesis.
- Dr. Jur.—Dos años de estudios posteriores a la graduación; tesis.
- Graduados en Arquitectura—Dos años de estudios posteriores a la graduación; tesis.
- Graduados en Salubridad Pública—Dos años de estudios posteriores a la graduación.
- Dr. Farm.—Dos años por lo menos de estudios posteriores a la graduación; tesis.

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[1] Tres unidades de la Universidad de California equivalen a una unidad de ingreso de las que se han establecido como norma.

Escuela para Graduados—Continúa.

Grados—Continúa.

I. M., I. Mec., I. Met.—Estos grados se confieren a los graduados en los colegios de ingeniería que, después de tres años por lo menos de haber obtenido el grado de bachiller, uno de los cuales debe haberse dedicado a práctica profesional, pasan un examen satisfactorio en las materias prescritas y presentan una tesis.

I. Civ.—Tres años por lo menos de estudios posteriores a la graduación, y tesis.

Los grados en ingeniería se confieren también a los estudiantes que hubieren obtenido el grado de bachiller en la Universidad de California y que, por lo menos diez años después de su graduación presenten una tesis satisfactoria y comprueben haber llevado a cabo labor profesional con éxito notable.

Colegio de Jurisprudencia Hastings (San Francisco):

Admisión: Dos años de estudio en colegio.

Grado:

B. Jur.—Curso de tres años.

Escuela de Medicina:

Admisión: Dos años de colegio.

Grado:

Dr. Med.—Curso de cinco años. Los dos primeros años se estudia en Berkeley y los tres últimos en San Francisco. La instrucción a los graduados se proporciona únicamente en el departamento de medicina de Los Angeles.

Colegio de Farmacia (San Francisco):

Admisión, para optar el grado de farmacéutico: Graduación después de un curso de cuatro años en alguna high-school calificada.

Para el grado de Q. Farm.: Graduación después de un curso de cuatro años en alguna high-school calificada.

Para el grado de B. Farm.: Graduación después de un curso de cuatro años en alguna high-school calificada.

Grados: Farmacéutico—Curso de dos años; tesis.

Q. Farm.—Curso de tres años; tesis.

B. Farm.—Curso de cuatro años; tesis.

Colegio Dental (San Francisco):

Admisión: 45 unidades elegidas por el alumno, incluyendo física o química.

Grado: Dr. C. D.—Curso de tres años.

Miscelánea:

Observatorio Astronómico Lick, en Mount Hamilton.
Institución Scripps para Investigaciones Biológicas, en la Jolla.
Instituto de Arte San Francisco.
Universidad Granja Escuela, en Davis.
Escuela de Agricultura Tropical para graduados, en Riverside.
División Extensiva de la Universidad.

Gastos:

Instrucción para los que no residen en California, excepto en la escuela de medicina y colegios dentales y de farmacia	$20
Instrucción para los estudiantes de la escuela de medicina	150
Instrucción para los estudiantes del colegio dental	150
Instrucción para los estudiantes del colegio de farmacia	150
Alojamiento y alimentación, mensualmente	15–45
El gasto total por requisitos de los departamentos académicos no excede anualmente de	350

Facultad, 600.

Estudiantes, 8,733, de los cuales 180 son extranjeros.

Especialmente interesante para los estudiantes extranjeros.—Laboratorios bien equipados proporcionan amplias facilidades para experimentos en ingeniería civil, eléctrica y de minas. En la primera división se ofrecen cursos sobre irrigación, incluyendo datos sobre instituciones de irrigación y su economía, ingeniería, dibujo, provisión de agua, hidráulica rural y desecación, con labor graduada en dibujo, y dirección y manejo del sistema de ingeniería.

La situación de la universidad se presta para ofrecer cursos eficientes en el colegio de agricultura en materia de viticultura, industria vinera, cultivo de limoneros y producción de frutos semi-tropicales. Hay laboratorios especiales para todos estos ramos y la estación experimental de limoneros procura estos frutos para su estudio e investigación particular.

El curso de pedagogía tiene en mira la enseñanza profesional en tres clases: a los que se preparan para enseñar en escuelas y colegios secundarios; a los que se preparan para dedicarse a labor administrativa escolar; y a los que intentan dedicarse a la enseñanza en escuelas elementales.

El colegio dental y las escuelas de jurisprudencia y de medicina son de primer rango.

UNIVERSITY OF SOUTHERN CALIFORNIA, Los Angeles, California, ciudad de 412,466 habitantes. Fundada en 1880; mixta.

Colegio de Artes Liberales.
 Departamento para alumnos no graduados.
  Admisión: 15 unidades. Para el curso de B. A., 8 prescritas: 2 inglés, 2 idiomas, 1 ciencia, 2 matemáticas, 1 historia. Para el curso de B. C., 13 prescritas: 1 ciencia, 2 matemáticas y 2 dibujo en adición a las que se mencionan primero.
 Grados:
  B. A.—Curso de cuatro años.
  B. C.—Curso de cuatro años en ingeniería civil o eléctrica.
  Ofrece también la universidad los dos primeros años de un curso de cuatro años en ingeniería química y de minas.
Departamento para graduados.
 Admisión: Grado de bachiller en un colegio calificado.
 Grado: M. A.—Un año de estudio posterior al grado; tesis.
Colegio de Médicos y Cirujanos.
 Admisión: Dos años de estudios de colegio incluyendo física, química, biología y alemán o francés.
 Grado: Dr. Med.—Curso de cuatro años.
Colegio de Jurisprudencia.
 Admisión: Grado obtenido en escuela calificada.
Grados:
  B. Jur.—Curso de tres años.
  Dr. Jur.—Curso de tres años para los que hubieren optado el grado de B. A.
  M. Jur.—Curso de un año posterior al grado de bachiller o doctor en jurisprudencia; tesis.
Colegio Dental.
 Admisión: Grado de bachiller en escuela calificada.
 Grado: Dr. C. D.—Curso de tres años.
Colegio de Teología (Metodista).
 Admisión: Grado de bachiller en colegio calificado.
 Grado: B. T.—Curso de tres años. Hay también abierto un curso de tres años para los estudiantes que hayan seguido solamente un curso de colegio de dos años y deseen obtener su diploma.
Colegio de Farmacia.
 Admisión: Un año de estudio en high-school.
 Grados:
  Q. Farm.—Curso de dos años.
  B. Far.—Un año de estudios después del grado de Q. Farm.; tesis. (A este grado pueden optar solamente los graduados en high-school.)

Colegio de Bellas Artes.
Admisión: 15 unidades, como en el colegio de artes liberales.
Grado: B. en bellas artes—Curso de cuatro años; con un curso de tres años puede obtenerse el diploma.
Miscelánea.
High-school (escuela modelo para la enseñanza).
Colegio de Música.
Colegio de Oratoria.
Gastos:
Instrucción—

Colegio de artes liberales y jurisprudencia	$90
Colegio de bellas artes	95
Colegio de farmacia	100
Colegio de medicina y colegio dental	150
Escuela de teología, gratuita.	
Alojamiento y alimentación, por semana	5–7

Facultad, 197.
Estudiantes, 2,505, de los cuales 35 son extranjeros.
Especialmente interesante para los estudiantes de fuera:
El Departamento Oriental.
El Colegio Dental.

La proximidad relativa de la Universidad de la California del Sur a las naciones de Centro y Sud América es un aliciente para los estudiantes de aquellas localidades.

COLORADO SCHOOL OF MINES, Golden, Colorado, ciudad de 3,000 habitantes, a trece millas al este de Denver. Institución fundada en 1874.

Admisión: 15 unidades, 12 prescritas; 3 matemáticas, 3 inglés, 2 idiomas, 2 historia, y 2 ciencia.
Grados:
I. M.—Cuatro años de estudio en curso para estudiantes no graduados; tesis.
M. C.—Un año de estudio en curso posterior al grado de ingeniero de minas: tesis.
Gastos:

Instrucción gratuita para los habitantes de Colorado; para los de fuera	$150
Pensión, por semana	4–5
Alojamiento, por mes	6–10
El gasto total indispensable no excede anualmente de	500–550

Facultad, 21.
Estudiantes, 209, de los cuales 23 son extranjeros.

Especialmente interesante para los extranjeros.—Este curso incluye ingeniería civil, mecánica, eléctrica, de minas, metalurgia, geología y mineralogía y derecho de minas; La escuela está perfectamente equipada con laboratorios y, encontrándose situada en uno de los más importantes centros mineros del país, cerca de gran número y diversidad de minas y empresas metalúrgicas, ofrece excepcionales facilidades a los estudiantes en este ramo.

YALE UNIVERSITY, New Haven, Connecticut, ciudad de 141,915 habitantes, Institución fundada en 1701.

Colegio Yale (para alumnos no graduados).
Admisión: Examen que comprende 16 unidades. Materias prescritas: inglés, latín, francés o alemán, álgebra, y geometría plana, con cuatro estudios adicionales elegidos por el candidato.
Grado: B. A.—Curso de cuatro años.

Escuela Científica Sheffield.

Admisión: 15 unidades, 13 prescritas, 3 inglés, 4 idiomas, 1 historia, 4 matemáticas, y 1 ciencia.

Grados:

B. Fil.—Curso de tres años.
M. C.—Curso de dos años de estudio posterior al grado; tesis.
I. Civ.—Curso de cinco años; tesis.
I. M.—Curso de cinco años; tesis.
I. Mec.—Curso de cinco años; tesis.
I. Met.—Curso de cinco años; tesis.
I. Elec.—Curso de cinco años; tesis.

Escuela para graduados.

Admisión: Grado de bachiller en colegio calificado.

Grados:

M. A. (requisito mínimum)—Dos años de estudio posterior a la graduación; ensayo.

Dr. Fil. (requisito mínimum)—Tres años de estudio posterior a la graduación; tesis. Solamente este grado se confiere a las mujeres.

Escuela de Bellas Artes. Curso de tres años en dibujo, pintura y escultura. El grado de B. B. A. se confiere a los estudiantes de reconocida habilidad que hubieren dedicado dos años por lo menos a trabajos profesionales después de la terminación del curso de tres años, y que presenten una tesis y un trabajo original. Uno de los dos años puede también dedicarse a estudios superiores en la escuela de bellas artes de Yale.

Curso de cuatro años en arquitectura. El grado de B. B. A. se confiere después de haber terminado satisfactoriamente el curso de cuatro años. El trabajo que deben presentar los alumnos consistirá en selecciones de su labor durante el último año de escuela. Además, deben presentar una tesis.

Escuela de Música. Curso de tres años anterior a los grados. Venciendo este curso se obtiene un certificado de conocimiento de la teoría de la música.

El grado de B. Mús. se confiere a los estudiantes de reconocida habilidad que hubieren dedicado dos años por lo menos a estudios para obtener el grado después de haber recibido el diploma. Un trabajo original sobre alguna de las formas principales debe presentarse como tesis.

Escuela de Selvicultura.

Admisión: Grado de bachiller obtenido en colegio calificado, o también, en ciertos casos, tres años de estudio de colegio.

Grado: M. Selv.—Curso de dos años. Los estudiantes que hubieren optado algún grado en selvicultura en alguna institución superior, pueden recibir el grado de maestro a la terminación de un año.

Escuela de Religión.

Admisión: Grado de bachiller en colegio calificado, o su equivalente completo.

Grados: B. T.—Curso de tres años. Los estudiantes pueden inscribirse igualmente en la escuela para graduados como candidatos para los grados de M. A. y Dr. Fil.

Escuela de Medicina.

Admisión: Requisito mínimo en general: Dos años de estudio de colegio que haya incluído ciertas materias especiales en ciencia preparatoria.

Grado: M. T.—Curso de cuatro años; tesis.

Escuela de Derecho.

Admisión: Como candidato para grados, el grado de bachiller en colegio calificado (exceptuando a los alumnos superiores del Colegio Yale). Para estudiantes que no son candidatos a ningún grado, dos años de estudio de colegio.

Escuela de Derecho—Continúa.

Grados:

B. Jur.—Curso de tres años.

B. Der. Civ.—Curso de tres años; labor equivalente a la de B. Jur. Sin embargo, para el grado de B. Der. Civ. se prescriben cursos en derecho romano que no son obligatorios para el de B. Jur.

M. Jur.—Un año de estudio para los graduados en escuelas de derecho calificadas; tesis.

Dr. Jur.—Un año de estudio para los que hubieren recibido el grado de bachiller en escuelas de derecho calificadas; tesis.

Dr. Der. Civ.—Dos años de estudio posterior a los grados y además de los requisitos de admisión para Dr. Jur. un examen preliminar en historía y derecho romano, latín y francés o alemán a elección; tesis.

Gastos:

Instrucción—

Escuela de bellas artes:	
Departamentos de dibujo, pintura y escultura	$90
Departamento de arquitectura	180
Escuela de música	50–200
Colegio Yale	160
Escuela científica Sheffield	201
Escuelas de derecho y de medicina	150
Escuela de selvicultura, primer año	150
Escuela de selvicultura, segundo año	125
Escuela para graduados	125

Pensión, de $4 semanales adelante.

Aposento, de $1.50 semanales adelante.

Gasto total por año, de $400 a $1,000 que puede reducirse por medio de alguna prebenda en caso de que el alumno haya demostrado inteligencia y buena disposición.

Facultad, 367.

Estudiantes, 3,268, de los cuales 80 son extranjeros.

Especialmente interesante para los forasteros.—El Colegio Yale ha demostrado satisfacer las aspiraciones de los estudiantes forasteros que desean seguir un curso serio anterior a la graduación. Incluye en su personal de profesores muchas personas de alta reputación intelectual y está perfectamente equipado en materia de bibliotecas, laboratorios y museos.

La Escuela Científica Sheffield ofrece cursos para graduados anteriores a la graduación en matemáticas, física y ciencias naturales. Sus modernos laboratorios procuran toda clase de facilidades para estudios avanzados, experimentos e investigaciones, no solamente en ciencias naturales sino en ingeniería eléctrica, mecánica, y de minas.

La Escuela de Selvicultura fundada en 1900, es estrictamente para graduados y ofrece enseñanza completa en todos los ramos de selvicultura. Goza de dotaciones especiales para sus departamentos de selvicultura, maderas y cuidado de los bosques. Además de las horas de clase y ensayos de laboratorio, dedican mucho tiempo los estudiantes a estudios prácticos en el campo, para lo cual dispone la escuela de un terreno de 1,000 acres de extensión en Milford, Pennsylvania, de los bosques de la New Haven Co. en New Haven, de la escuela campestre en Keene, New Hampshire, y de algunas propiedades en los montes Adirondack de New York y en los estados del Sur.

La Escuela para Graduados se ha reorganizado últimamente como un departamento independiente de la universidad; está perfectamente equipada y ofrece cursos para obtener los grados superiores en todos los demás departamentos. Debe tenerse en cuenta que se necesitan dos años de estudio posterior a los grados para optar el título de maestro, en vez del ordinario mínimum requerido de un año.

Entre los departamentos más dignos de notarse, tanto por la capacidad de los profesores encargados como por el programa de clases, puede mencionarse el de historia, que comprende la historia de la América latina y la de la civilización japonesa, y los de economía, derecho, selvicultura, geografía, geología, inglés, filología comparada, arte y música.

CATHOLIC UNIVERSITY OF AMERICA, Wáshington, D. C., ciudad de 348,077 habitantes y capital de la nación. Institución fundada en 1887.

- Escuela de Filosofía.
  - Departamento para alumnos no graduados.
    - Admisión: Diploma de escuela secundaria calificada con certificado de la labor realizada en inglés historia, latín, griego, francés o alemán, matemáticas y dos ciencias.
    - Grados: B. A. y B. Fil.—Curso de cuatro años.
  - Departamentos para graduados.
    - Admisión: Grado de bachiller en colegio calificado.
    - Grados:
      - M. Fil.—Dos años de estudio posterior a los grados; tesis.
      - Dr. Fil.—Tres años de estudio posterior a los grados; tesis.
- Escuela de Letras.
  - Departamento para alumnos no graduados.
    - Admisión: Diploma de escuela secundaria calificada, con certificado de haber llevado a cabo la labor requerida en inglés, alguna historia, matemáticas, latín y las materias comprendidas en A o B.
      - A.—Griego, y francés o alemán elemental.
      - B.—Uno de las siguientes:
        - (*a*) Francés o alemán, curso superior.
        - (*b*) Francés o alemán, curso superior, y física o química.
    - Grados: B. A., B. Lit.—Curso de cuatro años.
  - Departamento para graduados.
    - Admisión: Grado de bachiller en colegio calificado.
    - Grados:
      - M. A.—Un año de curso posterior a los grados; tesis.
      - M. L.—Curso de dos años posterior a los grados; tesis.
      - Dr. Fil.—Curso de tres años posterior a los grados; tesis.
      - Dr. Lit.—Curso igual al de doctor en filosofía.
- Escuela de Ciencias.
  - Departamento para alumnos no graduados.
    - Admisión: Iguales requisitos a los de la escuela de filosofía.
    - Cursos de cuatre años:

	Grados.
General	B. C. y B. A.
Ingeniería civil	B. C. en I. Civ.
Ingeniería eléctrica	B. C. en I. Eléc.
Ingeniería química	B. C. en I. Q.
Ingeniería mecánica	B. C. en I. Mec.
Arquitectura	B. C. en Arq.
Ingeniería arquitectónica	B. C. en I. Arq.

- Departamento para graduados.
  - Admisión: Grado de bachiller en colegio calificado.
  - Grados:
    - M. A.—Un año de curso posterior a los grados; tesis.
    - M. C., I. Elec., I. Q., I. Mec.—Dos años de curso posterior a los grados; tesis.
    - Dr. C. y Dr. Fil.—Tres años de curso posterior a los grados; tesis.

Colegio de Pedagogía.

Grados: Los usuales en artes y en filosofía.

Escuela de Ciencias Sagradas.

Admisión: Curso de dos años en filosofía y curso de tres años en teología en un seminario teológico católico.

Grados:

B. T. S.—Este grado se confiere después del examen de los cursos llevados previamente en teología.

B. D. C.—Este grado se confiere después del examen de los cursos llevados previamente en algún seminario, incluyendo por lo menos un años de derecho canónico.

Lic. T. S. o Lic. Der. C.—Dos años de curso posterior a la graduación; tesis.

Dr. T. S. o Dr. Der. C.—Cuatro años de curso posterior a la graduación; tesis.

Escuela de Derecho.

Departamento para alumnos no graduados.

Admisión: Diploma de escuela secundaria calificada.

Grado: B. L.—Curso de tres años.

Departamento para graduados.

Admisión: Grado de bachiller en colegio calificado y de B. L. en la escuela de derecho de la universidad o en cualquiera otra calificada.

Grados:

M. L. y M. Der. Civ.—Un año de curso posterior a los grados; tesis.

Dr. Der. Civ.—Dos años de curso posterior al grado de maestro en derecho civil; tesis.

Gastos:

Instrucción (excepto en la escuela de ciencias sagradas)	$100
Instrucción en la escuela de ciencias sagradas	250
Alimentación por mes (en la universidad)	25
Aposento (en la universidad), de $8.50 a $20 por mes.	
Gasto total por año, aproximadamente	500

Facultad, 66.

Estudiantes, 508, de los cuales 11 son forasteros.

Colegio Trinidad, afiliado a la Universidad Católica. Institución fundada en 1897 para la educación de la mujer.

Departamento para alumnos no graduados.

Admisión: 15½ unidades, 13½ prescritas: 3 inglés, 1 historia, 2½ matemáticas, 4 latín, 3 griego, francés o alemán.

Grados: B. A., B. C. o B. Lit.—Curso de cuatro años.

Departamento para graduados.

Admisión: Grado de bachiller en colegio calificado.

Grados: M. A. y M. C.—Un año de curso posterior a los grados; tesis. Este curso se ofrece solamente en los departamentos donde enseñan profesores de la Universidad Católica y debe llevarse bajo su personal dirección.

Gastos:

Instrucción	$150
Alojamiento y pensión	350–500

Facultad, 32.

Estudiantes, 190, ningún forastero.

Nota de especial interés para los estudiantes extranjeros.—La Universidad Católica de América ofrece instrucción completa en todos sus departamentos, con marcada tendencia religiosa. Su situación en Wáshington tiene además la ventaja de poner al alumno en contacto con facilidades inapreciables en cultura y educación que no es posible encontrar en otros lugares de la república.

La Escuela de Ciencias Sagradas, institución estrictamente para graduados, ofrece especial y completa instrucción para los graduados en seminarios teológicos que deseen seguir estudios superiores. En sus diversos departamentos se dictan las clases siguientes: escritura sagrada, teología dogmática, apologética, teología moral, teología sacramental, derecho canónico, historia de la iglesia, teología ascética y pastoral.

El Departamento de Educación insiste sobre los aspectos psicológicos y filosóficos de la materia tratada, y sobre los principios sobre los cuales se basa la educación católica. Incluye cursos de la filosofía de la educación, psicología de la educación, ciencia y arte del estudio, métodos generales, administración y manejo escolar, historia de la educación y administración de las escuelas públicas en los Estados Unidos.

Los profesores de la Universidad Católica enseñan también en algunos departamentos para alumnos no graduados del Colegio Trinidad, y todo el curso de los graduados está bajo su absoluta dirección.

GEORGE WASHINGTON UNIVERSITY, Wáshington, D. C., ciudad de 348,077 habitantes y capital de la nación. Institución fundada en 1821; mixta.

Colegio Columbian, para estudiantes no graduados.

Admisión: 15 unidades, 7½ prescritas: 3 inglés, 2½ matemáticas, 2 idiomas.

Grados: B. A., B. C. Q. y B. C. Med.—Sesenta horas [1] de curso para estudiantes no graduados.

Colegio de Ingeniería.

Admisión: 15 unidades, 13 prescritas: 3 inglés, 4 idiomas, 4 matemáticas y 2 ciencias. Para el curso de arquitectura las unidades de ciencia no están prescritas y sólo se requieren dos de las cuatro prescritas de idiomas extranjeros.

Grados: Bachiller de ciencias en I. Civ., Elec. y de Minas, y B. C. en Arq.—Curso de cuatro años.

Colegio de Pedagogía.

Admisión: 15 unidades, 7½ prescritas: 3 inglés, 2½ matemáticas, 2 idiomas.

Grado: B. A. y diploma de bachiller en educación.—Curso de sesenta y dos horas.[1]

Escuela para Graduados.

Admisión: Grado de bachiller en colegio calificado.

Grados:

M. A. y M. C.—Un año de estudio posterior a los grados; tesis.

I. Mec., Civ. y Elec.—Un año de estudio posterior a los grados; tesis.

Dr. Fil.—Tres años de estudio posterior a la graduación; tesis.

Escuela de Derecho.

Admisión: 15 unidades, 7½ prescritas: 3 inglés, 2½ matemáticas, 2 idiomas; un año de colegio si el candidato es menor de 21 años.

Grados:

B. Jur.—Curso de tres años.

M. Jur. o M. en derecho de gentes.—Un año de estudio posterior al grado de bachiller en jurisprudencia. Como requisito previo el grado de bachiller en colegio calificado.

Escuela de Medicina.

Admisión: Un año de estudio de colegio que haya incluído física, química y biología.

Grado: Dr. Med.—Curso de cuatro años.

Escuela Dental.

Admisión: Graduación en escuela secundaria calificada.

Grado: Dr. Med. D.—Curso de tres años.

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[1] La "hora" comprende un período de recitación, clase o laboratorio por semana durante el año escolar. No hay tiempo prescrito para la terminación del curso en los colegios, pero sólo se otorga el grado cuando el estudiante haya completado el número de horas requerido.

Colegio Nacional de Farmacia.
Admisión: Curso de cuatro años en escuela secundaria calificada.
Grado: Dr. Farm.—Curso de tres años.
Colegio de Medicina Veterinaria.
Admisión: Educación primaria.
Grado: Dr. Med. Vet.—Curso de cuatro años.
Gastos:
Instrucción—

Colegio y escuela de derecho, cada hora semanal	$10
Escuela de medicina y para graduados	150
Colegio de veterinaria	100
Escuela dental	125
Colegio de farmacia	80–90
Cuarto y pensión, por mes	35–40
Gasto total por año	500–800

Facultad, 189.
Estudiantes, 1,611, de los cuales 38 son forasteros.

Especialmente interesante para los estudiantes extranjeros.—El Colegio de Pedagogía ofrece clases adaptables a los propósitos, tanto de aquellos que deseen dedicarse a la enseñanza en los colegios, como de los que han iniciado ya sus labores y desean instrucción especial en ciertas fases particulares de educación.

En el departamento de ciencias políticas ofrece cursos la universidad a todos aquellos que pretendan ingresar en el servicio diplomático o consular. Este curso incluye un estudio de la forma de gobierno europea y americana, la historia de la política de la moderna Europa y de Sud América, derecho internacional, principios y usos diplomáticos, servicio consular, y administración colonial.

GEORGETOWN UNIVERSITY, Washington, D. C., ciudad de 348,077 habitantes y capital de la nación. Institución fundada en 1789.

El Colegio.
Departamento para alumnos no graduados.
Admisión: Terminación del curso de escuela secundaria en latín, griego, inglés, historia, matemáticas, ciencias y un idioma moderno.
Grados:
B. A.—Curso de cuatro años.
B. C.—Curso de cuatro años.
Escuela de Medicina.
Admisión: Dos años de curso de colegio incluyendo química, física, biología y francés o alemán.
Grado: Dr. Med.—Curso de cuatro años.
Escuela Dental.
Admisión: Graduación en escuela secundaria calificada.
Grado: Dr. Med. D.—Curso de tres años.
Escuela de Derecho.
Admisión: Graduación en escuela secundaria calificada.
Grados:
B. Jur.—Curso de tres años.
M. Jur.—Un año de estudio posterior al grado de bachiller en jurisprudencia; tesis.
Maestro en derecho de gentes—Un año de estudio de derecho de gentes para los alumnos superiores, los graduados y los miembros del foro.
Gastos:
Instrucción:

Colegio, y escuela de medicina	$150
Escuela dental	125
Escuela de derecho	100
Escuela de derecho (sólo para derecho natural)	40

Gastos—Continúa.

Alojamiento y alimentación en la universidad, incluyendo lavado y servicio médico	322–372
Alojamiento en la universidad, por año	50–300
Alojamiento y alimentación fuera de la universidad, por mes	25–40
Gasto total por año	500

Facultad, 177.

Estudiantes, 1,499, de los cuales 22 son extranjeros.

Especialmente interesante para los forasteros.—Aun cuando Georgetown es una institución genuinamente católica, admite estudiantes de cualquiera denominación religiosa.

La escuela dental y la de medicina, consideradas entre las mejores de su clase y gozando de excelentes facilidades clínicas en la ciudad de Wáshington, atraen a sus aulas gran número de estudiantes extranjeros.

La situación de las instituciones de educación en Wáshington ha comprobado ser de gran utilidad para los alumnos forasteros, no solamente a causa del equipo de instrucción excepcionalmente completo que allí se encuentra y las facilidades para labor de investigación en las grandes colecciones científicas y bibliotecas del gobierno, sino también por la oportunidad de estudiar por medio del contacto y la observación diaria el sistema de administración federal de los Estados Unidos.

HOWARD UNIVERSITY, Wáshington, D. C. Institución fundada especialmente en 1867 para la educación de los negros, aun cuando no excluye a ninguna otra raza.

Colegio de Artes y Ciencias.

Admisión: 15 unidades, que deben seleccionarse de los siguientes grupos:

Grupo I.—12 prescritas: 3 inglés, 2 matemáticas, 4 latín, 2 griego, 1 historia.

Grupo II.—12 o 13 prescritas: 3 inglés, 2 matemáticas, 4 latín, 1 o 2 francés o alemán y 2 historia.

Grupo III.—12½ prescritas: 3 inglés, 2½ matemáticas, 2 latín, 2 historia, 1 francés o alemán y 2 ciencias.

Grados: B. A., B. C.—Curso de cuatro años.

Colegio de Pedagogía.

Admisión: Iguales requisitos a los del colegio de artes y ciencias.

Grados:

B. A. o B. C. y diploma de bachiller en pedagogía—Curso de cuatro años.

M. A. y diploma de maestro en pedagogía—Un año de curso posterior a los grados.

Escuela de Arte manual y Ciencia aplicada.

Admisión: Iguales requisitos a los del colegio de artes y ciencias.

Grados:

B. C. y diploma en ciencia o arte doméstico—Curso de cuatro años en economía doméstica.

B. C. en Ingeniería—Curso de cuatro años en ingeniería civil, mecánica o eléctrica.

I. Civ., I. Mec. e I. Elec.—Dos años de estudio posterior al grado de bachiller en ciencias.

Se dictan también clases en economía doméstica, artes manuales e instrucción manual.

Conservatorio de Música.

Admisión: Toda persona puede ingresar al conservatorio, pero para obtener diploma se requiere el certificado de una escuela secundaria calificada. El diploma se concede a la terminación de un curso de cuatro años.

Escuela de Teología.

Admisión: Graduación en escuela secundaria calificada.

Grado: B. T.—Curso de tres años, que requiere el grado previo de bachiller en colegio calificado. Se confiere diploma a los que sigan el curso sin haber llenado este requisito.

Colegio de Medicina.

Admisión: Dos años de estudio de colegio, incluyendo física, química, biología y un idioma moderno además del inglés.

Grado: Dr. Med.—Curso de cuatro años.

Colegio Dental.

Admisión: Graduación en escuela secundaria calificada.

Grado: Dr. Cir. D.—Curso de tres años.

Colegio de Farmacia.

Admisión: Dos años de estudio en high-school.

Grado: Dr. Farm.—Curso de tres años.

Escuela de Derecho.

Admisión: Graduación en colegio o escuela secundaria calificada. Los que no hubieren obtenido el grado presentarán examen preliminar.

Grado: B. Jur.—Curso de tres años.

Miscelánea.

Escuela bibliotecaria.

Academia.

Escuela comercial.

Gastos:

Instrucción—	
Escuela de artes liberales, artes manuales y ciencia aplicada	$20
Colegio de medicina	100
Colegio dental y Colegio de farmacia	80
Escuela de derecho	50
Alimentación, por mes	10
Alojamiento, por año	25
Gasto total por año	150–250

Facultad, 115.

Estudiantes, 1,463, de los cuales 125 son de naciones extranjeras.

Especialmente interesante para los extranjeros.—La Universidad Howard fué fundada especialmente para la educación de los negros y la mayor de los alumnos pertenecen a esta raza. Es una institución federal, bajo la vigilancia del Departamento del Interior y más o menos la mitad de sus ingresos provienen de subvención nacional. Se ofrecen cursos completos en todos sus departamentos; y esta universidad comparte con las que acabamos de mencionar todas las ventajas de la situación en Wáshington.

COLLEGE OF HAWAII, Honolulu, Hawaii, ciudad de 52,000 habitantes. Institución concesionaria fundada en 1907; mixta.

Cursos para alumnos no graduados.

Admisión: 1°. Graduación en high-school calificada. 2°. 15 unidades, 5½ prescritas: 3 inglés, 2½ matemáticas. Se exige una unidad adicional de matemáticas a los estudiantes que deseen seguir estudios especiales en ingeniería.

Cursos de cuatro años:	Grados.
Agricultura	B. C. Agr.
Ingeniería civil	B. C. en I. civ.
Ingeniería mecánica	B. C. en I. mec.
Tecnología del azúcar	B. C. en Tec. azuc.
Ciencias:	
Grupo A—ciencias físicas	B. C.
Grupo B—ciencias biológicas	B. C.
Grupo C—ciencias y artes domésticas	B. C.

Cursos para graduados.

Admisión: Grado de bachiller en colegio calificado.

Grados: M. C., M. Agr. Cient., I. Mec., I. Civ. e I. Elec.

Un año de estudio posterior a la graduación: tesis.

Gastos:

Instrucción (gratuita para los residentes en Hawaii)	$50
Alimentación	225
Alojamiento	90
Gasto total por año, incluyendo libros y útiles de escritorio	400

Facultad, 22.

Estudiantes, 105, comprendiendo 12 chinos, 5 japoneses, 2 coreanos, 2 filipinos y 3 de las comarcas del Caucaso.

Especialmente interesante para los estudiantes extranjeros.—Por razón de su situación ofrece este colegio especiales facilidades para la instrucción en la agricultura tropical. Se dictan clases sobre el cultivo y selección de las plantas, los productos tropicales y el cultivo de la caña de azúcar.

Se ha introducido además recientemente un curso sobre la tecnología del azúcar para educar a los alumnos en los principios fundamentales de la química azucarera, la producción de la caña y la fabricación del azúcar moscabada. Las plantaciones científicamente cultivadas y el clima favorable de Hawaii ofrecen incalculables ventajas. En combinación con este departamento facilita clases el departamento de ingeniería sobre las plantaciones de azúcar.

El clima de Hawaii, que permite labor a campo abierta durante todo el año, y la variedad de su fauna y flora facilitan el estudio de zoología, botánica y entomología para el cual cuenta el colegio con excelente equipo de laboratorio. El colegio Hawaii posee el herbario más completo de las plantas que existen en la localidad.

ARMOUR INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY, Chicago, Illinois, ciudad de 2,344,018 habitantes. Institución fundada en 1892.

Departamento para alumnos no graduados.

Admisión: 15 unidades, 12½ prescritas: 3½ matemáticas, 3 inglés, 2 ciencias, 1 historia, 2 idiomas y 1 dibujo mecánico.

Cursos de cuatro años:	Grados.
Ingeniería mecánica	B. C. en I. Mec.
Ingeniería eléctrica	B. C. en I. Elec.
Ingeniería civil	B. C. en I. Civ.
Ingeniería química de seguridad	B. C. en I. Q.
Ingeniería de seguridad contra incendios	B. C. en I. Seg. contra incendios.
Arquitectura	B. C. en Arq.
Arte industrial	B. C. en A. Ind.

Departamento para graduados.

Admisión: Grado de bachiller en colegio calificado.

Grados:

M. C.—Un año de curso posterior a los grados; tesis.

I. Mec., I. Civ., I. Elec., I. Q. e I. de seguridad contra incendios. Estos grados se confieren sin obligación de residencia a los graduados en el instituto Armour que hayan tenido tres años por lo menos de práctica satisfactoria o de magisterio en ingeniería y que presenten una tesis.

Gastos:

Instrucción	$175
Alojamiento y pensión, por semana	6–8
Gasto total por año	550

Facultad, 56.

Estudiantes, 527, de los cuales 19 son extranjeros.

Especialmente interesante para los forasteros.—El departamento de ingeniería de seguridad contra incendios ofrece instrucción en las materias siguientes: ingeniería de seguridad contra incendios, requisitos de aseguradores, casos fortuitos, seguros prácticos y formulario de precios, y maquinaria eléctrica. Los laboratorios de seguros en Chicago, dirigidos y sostenidos por las compañías de seguros contra incendios en el país, ofrecen facilidades inapreciables para labor experimental y de investigación.

Por medio de la cooperación del Instituto de Arte de Chicago se obtienen igualmente excepcionales facilidades para el curso de arquitectura.

En el departamento de ingeniería civil se han establecido últimamente clases de aeronáutica, incluyendo instrucción en aerodinámica, dibujo aeronáutico y motores de gas.

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO, Chicago, Illinois, ciudad de 2,344,018 habitantes y uno de los centros ferrocarrileros más importantes del país. Incorporada en 1890; mixta.

Colegios: cuatro años de estudio anterior a los grados. El estudio se divide en dos partes. Los dos primeros años transcurre la enseñanza en el colegio menor; y a la expiración de este tiempo, habiendo recibido el candidato el título de "Asociado," pasa al colegio mayor para la labor de los dos últimos años antes de optar el grado de bachiller.

Admisión: Las materias están arregladas en los grupos siguientes: 1°. griego; 2°. latín; 3°. idiomas modernos además del inglés; 4°. historia, instrucción cívica y economía; 5°. matemáticas; y 6°. ciencias.

Se requieren 15 unidades que comprendan: 3 inglés, 3 o más de uno de los grupos mencionados, 2 o más de algún otro de dichos grupos, y 2 o menos de algún otro a elección. Las cinco unidades restantes se completarán en cualquier materia aceptada por una escuela secundaria calificada.

Grados: B. A., B. C., B. Fil.—Los estudios a que se dedique especialmente el candidato determinarán el grado que se deba otorgar.

Escuelas para Graduados:

Escuela de Artes y de Literatura para graduados.

Escuela Ogden de Ciencias.

Admisión: Grado de bachiller en colegio calificado.

Grados.—M. A. y M. C.—Un año de estudio posterior a los grados; tesis.

Dr. Fil.—Tres años de estudio posterior a la graduación; tesis. El grado de doctor "no se otorga sobre la base de determinado tiempo dedicado a programa especial, sino como prueba y distinción especial por los altos merecimientos y habilidad que haya demostrado el candidato en el ramo elegido."

Escuela de Teología.

Seminario Teológico Inglés.

Admisión: 15 unidades como en los colegios. Cuatro años del programa prescrito para los estudios de los residentes durante la temporada de verano, y labor de correspondencia como los ausentes durante el resto del año.

Escuela de Teología para Graduados.

Admisión: Grado de bachiller en colegio calificado.

Grados:

M. A.—Un año de estudio posterior a la graduación; tesis.

B. T.—Tres años de estudio posterior a la graduación; tesis.

Dr. Ped.—Cuatro años de estudio posterior a la graduación; tesis. (Véase la nota respecto a este grado en las Escuelas para Graduados.)

Escuela de Derecho.

Admisión para el grado de bachiller en jurisprudencia se otorga a los estudiantes adultos que hubieren realizado labor equivalente a los requisitos de ingreso a los colegios.

Grado: B. Jur.—Curso de tres años.

Admisión para el grado de doctor en jurisprudencia: Tres años de estudio de colegio. Antes de recibir el grado de Dr. Jur. los candidatos deben obtener el grado de bachiller en Chicago o algún colegio equivalente. El primer año de la escuela de derecho puede contarse para este fin y otorgarse a su terminación el grado de bachiller.

Grado: Dr. Jur.—Dos o tres años de estudio posterior a la graduación, según que el candidato haya incluído o no un año de derecho en sus estudios anteriores a los grados.

Escuela de Medicina (Rush Medical College).

Admisión: Dos años de estudio de colegio que hayan incluído química, física, biología, dos años de latín y la capacidad de leer el francés o el alemán.

Grado: Dr. Med.—Curso de cinco años, uno de ellos dedicado a labor de interno en un hospital o a estudios superiores en uno de los departamentos de la escuela.

Escuela de Pedagogía.

Escuela elemental de la Universidad y high-school de la Universidad. (Véase pag. —.)

El Colegio.

Admisión: 15 unidades como en los demás colegios. Véase p. —.)

Grados:

B. A., B. C. o B. Fil. en pedagogía—Curso de cuatro años.
Certificado primario de kindergarten—Dos años.
Certificado de artes manuales—Dos años.
Certificado de economía doméstica y artes del hogar—Dos años.
Certificado de artes gráficas y plásticas—Dos años.
Certificado de inspector para kindergarten o escuelas elementales—Un año.

Para la admisión a este curso se requiere graduación en alguna escuela normal o instrucción de kindergarten.

Para obtener el certificado de economía doméstica y artes del hogar, de artes gráficas y plásticas o de inspector se requieren tres años de práctica en la enseñanza o un curso regular de dos años después del curso de cuatro años en high-school.

Departamento para graduados.

Admisión: Grado de bachiller en colegio calificado.

Grados: M. A., M. C. y Dr. Fil. otorgados por la Escuela de artes, literatura y ciencias para graduados.

Colegio de Comercio y Administración.

División de Comercio e Industria, para aquellos que desean entrar en los diversos ramos del comercio.

División de Filantropía y de Caridad, para los que desean emprender labor de utilidad social.

División de Servicio Público, para los que piensan dedicarse a trabajar en las diversas oficinas públicas.

Departamento para alumnos no graduados.

Admisión: 15 unidades, como en los demás colegios.

Grado: Bachiller en filosofía—Curso de cuatro años.

Departamento para graduados.

Admisión: Grado de bachiller en colegio calificado.

Grados: M. A. y Dr. Fil.—Otorgados en iguales condiciones a las de la escuela para graduados.

Colegio de Comercio y Administración—Continúa.

Colegio de Ciencias Religiosas y Sociales.—Consiste en una subdivisión del colegio de comercio y administración, arreglada para satisfacer las necesidades de los estudiantes que pertenezcan a los siguientes grupos: 1°. los que se preparan para secretarios o puestos semejantes en la Asociación Cristiana de Jóvenes; 2°. los que se preparan para misioneros médicos, para lo cual se requiere un curso de colegio y uno de medicina previos; y 3°. los que se preparan para el ministerio religioso y no pueden disponer de tiempo suficiente para curso separado de colegio o escuela de teología.

Admisión: 15 unidades, como en los demás colegios.

Grado: B. Fil.—Curso de cuatro años.

Gastos:

Instrucción—

Colegios, Escuela para graduados, Escuela de teología, Escuela de pedagogía y Escuela de comercio y administración comercial.	$120
Escuela de derecho	150
Escuela de medicina	180
Alojamiento (dormitorios de la universidad)	60–225
Alimentación regular en la universidad	135–225
Gasto total por año	340–715

Facultad, 337.

Estudiantes, 7,358, de los cuales 147 son de comarcas extranjeras.

Especialmente interesante para los estudiantes de fuera.—Formando parte de la escuela de pedagogía sostiene la Universidad una high-school y una escuela elemental del tipo normal establecido que ofrecen a los estudiantes la ocasión de observar el método y la práctica del magisterio. Un laboratorio especial, perfectamente equipado con aparatos adecuados, facilita la enseñanza dada a los niños de mentalidad deficiente.

La escuela de medicina figura entre las mejores del país.

La escuela de teología requiere que elijan los estudiantes su campo futuro de acción en alguno de los ramos siguientes: la cura de almas, educación religiosa, servicio social o labor misionera en lejanas regiones. Diversos programas se prescriben para cada una de estas vocaciones en particular. Debemos mencionar igualmente los cursos en el departamento de sociología práctica.

Los cursos que se ofrecen en la escuela para graduados son de clase superior. Se facilitan estudios especiales en los siguientes departamentos: filosofía, psicología, pedagogía, economía política, ciencias políticas, historia, historia del arte, sociología y antropología, administración del hogar, religión comparada, idiomas y literatura semítica, griego bíblico y patriótico, filología sánscrita e indoeuropea comparada, griego, latín, romance, germánico, estilo y literatura inglesa, literatura general, matemáticas, astronomía y física astral, física, química, geología, geografía, zoología, anatomía, fisiología, paleontología, botánica, patología, higiene y bacteriología.

La universidad funciona durante todo el año. El año se divide en cuatro períodos, tres de los cuales equivalen al año académico. En la mayor parte de los casos pueden reducir los estudiantes considerablemente el número de años académicos requeridos para obtener el grado, asistiendo a los cuatro períodos de enseñanza.

Se mantiene igualmente en la universidad un gran departamento de estudios por correspondencia, y un colegio para los días sábados, las tardes y las noches.

UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS, Urbana-Champaign, Illinois, ciudad de 25,000 habitantes, a 126 millas al sur de Chicago, 118 al oeste de Indianapolis, 164 al nordeste de San Luis. Institución concesionaria fundada en 1867; mixta.

Colegio de Artes y Ciencias Liberales.

Admisión: 15 unidades, 6 prescritas: 3 inglés, 2 matemáticas, 1 ciencia de laboratorio. Los requisitos adicionales para otros cursos son como sigue: para literatura y artes, comercio, periodismo, ciencias del hogar, ciencia y preparatoria médica: 2 idiomas, 1 ciencia general y química. Si se desea seguir un curso de ingeniería química, hay que contar 2 unidades de alemán adicionales.

Colegio de Artes y Ciencias Liberales—Continúa.

Grados: B. A. y B. C.—Curso de cuatro años. El grado de bachiller de ciencias se confiere a aquellos que hayan dedicado la mayor parte de su labor a la ciencia aplicada.

Colegio de Ingeniería.

Admisión: 15 unidades, 7 prescritas: 3 inglés, 3 matemáticas, 1 ciencia de laboratorio.

Cursos de cuatro años:	Grados.
Arquitectura	B. C. en Arq.
Ingeniería arquitectónica	B. C. en I. Arq.
Ingeniería civil	B. C. en I. Civ.
Ingeniería eléctrica	B. C. en I. Eléc.
Ingeniería mecánica	B. C. en I. Mec.
Ingeniería de minas	B. C. en I. M.
Ingeniería municipal y sanitaria	B. C. en I. Mun. y sanitaria.
Ingeniería ferroviaria	B. C. en I. F.
Ingeniería en ferrocarriles eléctricos	B. C. en I. F. eléc.
Ingeniería mecánica ferroviaria	B. C. en I. F.

Colegio de Agricultura.

Admisión: 15 unidades, 7 prescritas: 3 inglés, 2 matemáticas, 2 ciencias.

Cursos de cuatro años:	Grados.
Agricultura general	B. C. en Agr.
Floricultura	B. C. en Flor.
Ciencias del hogar	B. C. del hogar.
Jardinería de perspectiva	B. C. en Jard. de perspectiva.

Escuela de Música.

Admisión: 15 unidades, 10 prescritas; 3 inglés, 2 matemáticas, 1 ciencia de laboratorio, 2 idiomas, 2 música.

Grado: B. Mus.—Curso de cuatro años. A su terminación se obtiene un certificado de maestro de música y se tiene opción a un curso de un año en high-school pública de música.

Escuela para graduados.

Admisión: Grado de bachiller en colegio calificado.

Grados:

M. A. y M. C.—Un año de estudio posterior a los grados; tesis.

Dos clases de grados de maestro en ingeniería:

1. Grado académico de M. C. con mención del estudio especial a que se hubiere dedicado el candidato, como, por ejemplo, M. C. en arquitectura—Un año de estudio posterior a los grados con residencia en la misma ciudad, después del grado de bachiller; tesis.
2. Grados profesionales—
    - M. Arq.—después del grado de B. C. en Arq.
    - I. Arq.—después de B. C. en I. Arq.
    - I. Civ.—después de B. C. en I. Civ. o B. C. en I. Mun. y sanitaria.
    - I. Elec.—después de B. C. en I. Elec.
    - I. Mec.—después de B. C. en I. Mec.
    - I. Civ., I. Elec. o I. Mec.—después de B. C. en I. ferroviaria, según el curso que se hubiera elegido.

Estos grados profesionales se conceden después de tres años por lo menos de labor profesional, ya sea residiendo en la universidad o en ciudades diferentes—aun cuando lo último sólo se acepta a los graduados en la Universidad de Illinóis—y después de la presentación de una tesis. Como labor profesional puede incluirse contribución aportada a la literatura técnica, parte activa tomada en sociedades profesionales, investigación de problemas de ingeniería, y la enseñanza en materia de ingeniería.

Dr. Fil.—Tres años de estudio posterior a la graduación; tesis.

Escuela Bibliotecaria.

Admisión: Grado de bachiller en colegio calificado.

Grado: Bachiller en Ciençia Bibliotecaria—Curso de tres años.

Escuela de Pedagogía.

Se concede el grado regular de bachiller a los estudiantes que desean dedicarse a la enseñanza y que, habiéndose matriculado en los colegios de las universidades, ingresan en la escuela de pedagogía al comenzar el tercer año y terminan los dos últimos años de su estudio anterior a los grados bajo la dirección de esta facultad.

Escuela de Derecho.

Admisión: Dos años de estudio de colegio.

Grados:

B. Jur.—Curso de tres años.

Dr. Jur.—Curso de tres años, como para el bachillerato; tesis. (El grado de bachiller en colegio calificado y alta nota escolar en el curso de derecho son requisitos para el grado de doctor en jurisprudencia.)

Colegio de Medicina (establecido en Chicago).

Cursos:

1. Ocho años; cuatro en el Colegio de Artes y Ciencias liberales (Urbana) para el grado de B. A.; y cuatro años en el Colegio de Medicina (Chicago) para el de Dr. en medicina. Requisitos de admisión: 15 unidades, 8 prescritas: 3 inglés, 2 matemáticas, 1 ciencia de laboratorio y 2 idiomas.
2. Seis años; curso especial de tres años en el Colegio de Artes y Ciencias Liberales (Urbana), incluyendo un resumen de las materias ofrecidas en el primer año de medicina y en los dos años de ciencias y artes generales requeridas para admisión en el colegio de medicina; y tres años más en el colegio de medicina (Chicago). Se obtiene el grado de bachiller en artes después del primer año del colegio de medicina y el de doctor en medicina a la terminación del curso. Requisitos de admisión: los mismos que para el número 1.

   Se recomienda sin embargo que, a ser posible, siga el estudiante el curso de ocho años para alcanzar mayor perfeccionamiento en su educación.
3. Cuatro años; en el Colegio de Medicina (Chicago). Requisitos de admisión: 1°, 15 unidades de estudio en escuela secundaria, incluyendo 8 prescritas: 3 inglés, 2 matemáticas, 2 alemán, francés, latín o griego, 1 de historia de los Estados Unidos e instrucción cívica; 2°, dos años—60 horas al semestre—de estudio de colegio, incluyendo 30 prescritas: 8 química, 8 física, 8 biología, 6 alemán o francés. Grado de bachiller en ciencias después de los primeros dos años, y grado de doctor en medicina a terminación del curso.

Colegio Dental (establecido en Chicago).

Admisión: 15 unidades de labor en escuela secundaria calificada.

Grado: Dr. Cir. D.—Curso de tres años.

Escuela de Farmacia (Chicago).

Admisión:

Para el grado de farmacéutico, dos años de estudio en escuela secundaria calificada.

Para el grado de químico farmacéutico, graduación en escuela secundaria calificada.

Grados: Farmacéutico—Curso de dos años. Cuatro años de práctica en farmacia. El tiempo pasado en la escuela puede contarse para llenar este requisito.

Q. Farm.—Curso de dos años, insistiendo especialmente sobre el trabajo de laboratorio.

Gastos:	
Instrucción—	
Escuela de música	$20–54
Escuela de derecho	50
Colegio de medicina	120–155
Colegio dental	150
Escuela de farmacia:	
Curso más corto	75
Curso más largo	125
Gastos incidentales:	
Colegios de artes y ciencias liberales, ingeniería, agricultura, bibliotecario, y escuela de música	24
Alimentación, en Urbana	144–180
Alojamiento, en Urbana	72–80
Cuarto y pensión en Chicago, por semana	5–6
Gasto total al año	375–450

Facultad, 753.

Estudiantes, 5,539, de los cuales 190 son de países extranjeros.

Nota especialmente interesante para los estudiantes extranjeros.—Situada en el corazón del país, gran productor de cereales, ofrece la Universidad en su colegio de agricultura cursos especiales con respecto de los diferentes granos y su cultivo. La relación estrecha que mantiene con la estación experimental del Estado permite a la universidad sostener un cuerpo mayor de profesores, y facilita en alto grado los estudios en ramos determinados que no podrían llevarse a cabo de otra manera. Entre las clases más dignas de notarse en este colegio pueden mencionarse la de cría de animales que ofrece oportunidad para estudios superiores en nutrición animal; la de agronomía, particularmente en abonos y granos; la de entomología y la de jardinería de perspectiva.

El colegio de ingeniería es de primera clase. El estudio en ingeniería eléctrica y civil es muy profundo y la universidad sostiene una estación experimental de ingeniería, dedicada exclusivamente a labor de investigación.

En la escuela de comercio, organizada recientemente, ofrece la universidad clases en administración comercial incluyendo economía social e industrial, contaduría, instrucción bancaria y administración de ferrocarriles. El estudio en administración ferroviaria se divide en dos cursos generales: uno insiste sobre el tráfico y la contaduría, y el otro sobre la importancia del servicio de transporte y prepara a los candidatos especialmente para el departamento de carga en los ferrocarriles.

Igualmente se provee instrucción en labor periodística, ya administrativa o para la sección de avisos, o para reportajes, editoriales o escritos literarios.

La escuela bibliotecaria es de las mejores en el país. El curso incluye numerosas visitas a las bibliotecas, librerías, encuadernaciones y establecimientos de imprenta en la localidad y cada estudiante debe dedicar un mes por lo menos a labor práctica en determinada biblioteca pública.

La escuela para graduados, recientemente reorganizada, es de clase superior.

NORTHWESTERN UNIVERSITY, Evanston y Chicago, Illinois. El Colegio de artes liberales, la Escuela para graduados, el Colegio de ingeniería, las Escuelas de teología, la Escuela de música y la Escuela de oratoria están situadas en Evanston, ciudad de 25,000 habitantes, 12 millas al norte del centro de Chicago y contigua a esta ciudad. Las escuelas de derecho, medicina, farmacia, dental y comercial están en Chicago, ciudad de 2,344,018 habitantes. Institución fundada en 1851.

Colegio de Artes Liberales. Departamento para alumnos no graduados.

Admisión: 15 unidades, 5½ prescritas: 3 inglés, 2½ matemáticas.

Grados: B. A. y B. C.—Curso de cuatro años.

Escuela para graduados.

Admisión: Grado de bachiller en colegio calificado.

Grados:

- M. A.—Un año de estudio posterior a los grados; tesis.
- Dr. Fil.—Tres años de estudio posterior a los grados; tesis.
- M. T. S.—Tres años de curso en escuela teológica; un año de estudio posterior a la graduación en teología; tesis.

Escuela de Medicina.

Admisión: Dos años de estudio de colegio.

Grado: Dr. Med.—Curso de cuatro años y un año adicional de práctica en los hospitales.

Escuela de Derecho.

Admisión: Un año de estudio de colegio. Pueden también admitirse alumnos mayores de 20 años graduados en escuela secundaria calificada.

Grados:

- B. L. y B. Jur.—Curso de cuatro años.
- M. L.—Un año de estudio posterior al grado de B. L.; tesis.
- Dr. Jur.—(El candidato para este grado debe haber recibido el bachillerato en colegio calificado.) Un año de estudio posterior al grado de B. L.

Colegio de Ingeniería.

Admisión: Iguales requisitos a los del colegio de artes liberales.

Grados:

- B. C.—Curso de cuatro años.
- I. Elec. e I Civ.—Curso de cinco años.

Escuela de Farmacia.

Admisión: 15 unidades.

Grados:

- Farmacéutico—Dos años de estudio, cada uno de seis meses.
- Q. Farm.—Dos años de estudio, cada uno de nueve meses.

Escuela Dental.

Admisión: Graduación en high-school calificada.

Grado: Dr. Cir. D.—Curso de cuatro años.

Escuela de Comercio.

Admisión: Dos años de estudio de colegio.

Grado: B. Ad. Com.—Curso de tres años y tesis.

Instituto Bíblico Garret. Anteriormente un seminario teológico metodista, pero abierto ahora a todos los estudiantes debidamente acreditados.

Escuela de Teología para graduados.

Admisión: Grado de bachiller en colegio calificado.

Grado: B. T.—Curso de tres años.

Miscelánea:

- Escuela de música.
- Escuela de oratorio.
- Escuelas preparatorias—
  - Academia Evanston (Evanston).
  - Seminario Grand Prairie (Onarga, Illinois).
  - Academia Elgin (Elgin, Illinois).

Gastos:

Instrucción—

Colegio de artes liberales	$110
Escuela para graduados, según el curso que se elija; no excede de	40
Escuela de medicina	175

Gastos—Continúa.

Instrucción—Continúa.

Escuela de derecho	$150
Escuela de ingeniería	110
Escuela de farmacia: en el curso para obtener el grado de farmacéutico	100
Para el grado de químico farmacéutico	140
Escuela dental	150
Escuela de comercio, según el curso elegido, por término medio	45
Escuela de teología, gratuita.	
Alimentación, de $5 a $7 semanales.	
Alojamiento, de $5 a $12 por mes.	
Gasto total por año	$389–585

Facultad, 477.

Estudiantes, 4,791, de los cuales 115 son de naciones extranjeras.

Especialmente interesante para los estudiantes extranjeros.—La escuela de medicina y la de farmacia ocupan amplios y bien equipados edificios. Además, numerosos hospitales y dispensarios en la ciudad procuran grandes facilidades para la instrucción clínica. El hospital Wesley y el Mercy sostienen una escuela para enfermeras cuyo programa está a cargo de la inspección de la universidad.

La escuela dental es de primera clase. Ofrece un curso de práctica o de estudio posterior a los grados que dura cuatro semanas y principia al siguiente día que se inician los estudios.

La situación de la escuela de comercio en Chicago ofrece extraordinarias facilidades para la observación práctica y el estudio del comercio moderno y de los problemas comerciales en uno de los centros industriales más importantes del país.

El colegio de ingeniería introduce en su programa un número adicional de cursos destinados a procurar a los graduados instrucción más amplia y general de la que ordinariamente se ofrece en este ramo.

Un seminario teológico noruego-danés y otro suizo preparan estudiantes para trabajar en este país entre las personas de su respectiva nacionalidad.

UNIVERSITY OF NOTRE DAME, Notre Dame, Indiana, ciudad de 1,000 habitantes a dos millas de distancia de South Bend, Indiana, población de 63,198 habitantes, y a ocho millas al este de Chicago, Illinois, ciudad de 2,344,018 habitantes. Institución fundada en 1842.

Colegio de Artes y Letras.

Admisión: 16 unidades, 13 prescritas: 4 inglés, 2 latín, 2 francés o alemán, 2 historia, 2 matemáticas, 1 ciencias. Para el departamento de clásicos están prescritas las 16 unidades, requiriéndose en tal caso 7 de idiomas, que serían 4 de latín y 3 de griego.

Grados: B. A., B. Lit., B. Fil., B. Fil. en periodismo y B. Fil. en comercio.—Curso de cuatro años.

Colegio de Ciencias.

Admisión: 16 unidades, 13 prescritas: 4 inglés, 2 ciencias, 3 matemáticas, 2 idiomas, 2 historia.

Grados: B. C., B. C. Q., B. C. Biol., B. C. Farm.—Curso de cuatro años; tesis.

Cursos menores en farmacia. Dos años para los que hubieren completado un año de estudio en high-school, con opción al grado de farmacéutico. Tres años para los que hubieren completado dos años de estudio en high-school, con opción al grado de químico farmacéutico.

Colegio de Ingeniería.

Admisión: 16 unidades, como en el colegio de ciencias.

Grados: I. Civ., I. Elec., I. Mec. I. M. e I. Q.—Curso de cuatro años; tesis.

Colegio de Arquitectura.
Admisión: 16 unidades, como en el colegio de ciencias.
Grados:
B. C. en Arq. y B. C. en I. Arq.—Curso de cuatro años.
M. C. en Arq. y M. C. en I. Arq.—Un año de estudio posterior al grado de bachiller; tesis. El grado de maestro se otorga también por labor realizada fuera de la universidad.

Colegio de Derecho.
Admisión: 16 unidades, 13 prescritas, como en el colegio de letras.
Grados:
B. L.—Curso de tres años.
M. L.—Un año de estudio posterior al grado de bachiller en leyes; tesis.
Dr. L. o Dr. en Der. Civ.—Tres años de estudio posterior al grado de bachiller en leyes; tesis. Para cualquiera de estos grados se requiere la graduación previa de B. A. o B. C.

Colegio de Música.
Admisión: Iguales requisitos que para el colegio de artes y letras.
Grado: B. Mus.—Curso de cuatro años.

Cursos para graduados:
Admisión: Grado de bachiller en colegio calificado.
Grados:
Maestro en música—Un año de estudio posterior a la graduación; tesis.
Dr. Fil.—Tres años de estudio posterior a los grados; tesis.

Gastos: Alojamiento, pensión e instrucción.............................. $400
Facultad, 70.
Estudiantes, 1,028, de los cuales 57 son forasteros.

Especialmente interesante para los estudiantes extranjeros.—El colegio de ingeniería está equipado con amplios laboratorios y departamentos para la instrucción de ingeniería en todos sus ramos diversos. La proximidad a la ciudad de South Bend procura a los alumnos muchas facilidades para el estudio y observación de las instalaciones de la ingeniería moderna.

Aun cuando se admiten estudiantes de toda denominación religiosa, esta universidad es una institución estrictamente católica romana.

PURDUE UNIVERSITY, Lafayette, Indiana, ciudad de 20,000 habitantes. Institución concesionaria, mixta, fundada en 1869.

Admisión: 15 unidades, 9½ prescritas: 3 inglés, 2 idiomas, 2½ matemáticas, 1 ciencias, 1 historia. Para las escuelas de ingeniería se prescribe una unidad adicional de geometría del espacio.

Cursos para alumnos no graduados, cuatro años:

Ciencias	B. C.
Agricultura	B. C. en Agr.
Ingeniería química	B. C. en I. Q.
Ingeniería civil	B. C. en I. Civ.
Ingeniería eléctrica	B. C. en I. Elec.
Ingeniería mecánica	B. C. en I. Mec.
Farmacia	B. C. en Farm.

Se requiere un curso adicional de dos años en farmacia para obtener el grado de químico farmacéutico.

Departamento para graduados:
Admisión: Grado de bachiller en colegio calificado.
Grados:
M. C., M. C. en Agr., I. Mec., Q., Civ. y Elec.—Un año de estudio posterior a los grados; tesis.

Gastos:

Instrucción (para los que no habitan en Indiana)	$25
Alimentación, por semana	3.50–4
Alojamiento, por mes	4.50–6
Ingreso y gastos incidentales	15
Gasto anual, por término medio	325

Facultad, 179.

Estudiantes, 1,987, de los cuales 34 son forasteros.

Especialmente interesante para los estudiantes extranjeros.—Los cursos de ingeniería, que poseen un numeroso cuerpo de profesores y equipo de laboratorio excepcional, ofrecen amplias facilidades para el estudio de la ingeniería civil, eléctrica, mecánica y química.

La escuela de farmacia está organizada sobre la base del programa de los colegios; la escuela de agricultura insiste especialmente en el estudio de la crianza de animales; agronomía, horticultura y productos de lechería. En la escuela de ciencias se ofrecen cursos extensivos de química, física y biología, incluyendo bacteriología y selvicultura.

IOWA STATE COLLEGE, Ames, Iowa, ciudad de 4,000 habitantes. Institución concesionaria fundada en 1858.

Admisión: 15 unidades, 8½ prescritas: 3 inglés, 2½ matemáticas, 1 historia, y 2 idiomas. Para el ingreso a la división de ingeniería se prescribe una unidad adicional de geometría del espacio.

- Cursos de colegio.
  - División de Agricultura:
    - Cursos de cuatro años:
      - Educación agrícola; grado, B. C. en Ed. Agr.
      - Ingeniería agrícola; grado, B. C. en I. Agr.
      - Agronomía; grado, B. C. en agronomía.
      - Cría de animales; grado, B. C. en ganadería.
      - Productos de lechería; grado, B. C. en productos de lechería.
      - Selvicultura; grado, B. C. en Selv.
      - Horticultura; grado, B. C. en Hort.
    - Cursos de cinco años:
      - Ingeniería agrícola; grado, B. C. en I. Agr.
      - Selvicultura; grado, B. C. en Selv.
      - Ciencia y Agricultura; grado, B. C. y B. C. en ramos determinados.
    - Cursos de dos años: Certificado en agricultura.
- División de Ingeniería.
  - Cursos de cuatro años:
    - Ingeniería agrícola; grado, B. C. en I. Agr.
    - Cerámica; grado, B. C. en Cer.
    - Ingeniería química; grado, B. C. en I. Q.
    - Ingeniería civil; grado, B. C. en I. Civ.
    - Ingeniería eléctrica; grado, B. C. en I. Elec.
    - Ingeniería mecánica; grado, B. C. en I. Mec.
    - Ingeniería de minas; grado, B. C. en I. M.
    - Diseño de estructura; grado, B. C. en diseño de estructura.
  - Cursos de cinco años:
    - Ingeniería agrícola; grado, B. C. en I. Agr.
    - Ingeniería civil; grado, B. C. en I. Civ.
    - Ingeniería eléctrica; grado, B. C. en I. Eléc.
    - Ingeniería mecánica; grado, B. C. en I. Mec.
    - Ingeniería de minas; grados, B. C. en I. M.
    - Ingeniería y ciencias; grado, B. C. y B. C. en ramos determinados.

División de Ingeniería—Continúa.

División de Economía doméstica.

Economía doméstica; grado, B. C. en Econ. doméstica—Curso de cuatro años.

Ciencia y economía del hogar; grado, B. C., y B. C. en economía doméstica—Curso de cinco años.

División de Ciencia industrial:

Ciencia industrial; grado, B. C.—Curso de cuatro años.

Ciencias y Agricultura; grado, B. C. en ramos determinados.—Curso de cinco años.

Ciencias e Ingeniería; grado, B. C., y B. C. en ramos determinados.—Curso de cinco años.

Ciencias y Economía doméstica; grado, B. C., y B. C. en economía doméstica—Curso de cinco años.

Ciencias y Medicina veterinaria; grado, B. C., y Dr. Med. Vet.—Curso de seis años.

Curso especial para prácticos con opción a un certificado.

Departamento para graduados.

Admisión: Grado de bachiller en colegio calificado.

Grados:

M. C. en ramos determinados.—Un año de estudio posterior a los grados.

Dr. Fil.—Tres años de estudio posterior a los grados; tesis. La división de ingeniería concede los grados siguientes a la terminación de un año de estudios superiores y un año de práctica en puesto de responsabilidad, o después de tres años de práctica en puesto de responsabilidad: I. Agr., I. Civ., I. Eléc., I. M. e I. Mec.

Gastos:

Instrucción, gratuita para los habitantes de Iowa. Para los de fuera	$50
Cuarto y pensión, por semana	4–5
Gastos incidentales	12
Gastos de laboratorio	
El gasto total por año no excede de	350

Facultad, 226.

Estudiantes, 2,611, de los cuales 25 son forasteros.

Nota interesante para los estudiantes extranjeros.—El colegio ofrece cursos completos en selvicultura dando oportunidad para estudios especiales en los grupos siguientes: selvicultura general, administración de los bosques, manera de utilizar los productos de las selvas, protección e ingeniería de las selvas.

El curso en veterinaria, en medicina veterinaria, incluye cirugía, anatomía, medicina, patología, bacteriología, fisiología y farmacología. Durante los años superiores hay facilidades para labor especial en bacteriología y patología y para investigaciones individuales.

Se ofrecen cursos completos en agricultura, especialmente en crianza de animales, agronomía y productos de lechería, para los que posee el colegio grandes facilidades por su capital de ganado.

Un curso de ingeniería agrícola se ofrece conjuntamente por la división de agricultura e ingeniería.

STATE UNIVERSITY OF IOWA, Iowa City, Iowa, ciudad de 10,000 habitantes. Institución fundada en 1847; mixta.

Colegio de Artes liberales, para alumnos no graduados.

Admisión: 15 unidades, 8½ prescritas: 3 inglés, 2 idiomas, 1 historia, 2½ matemáticas.

Grados:

B. A.—Curso de cuatro años.

B. C.—Seis años de curso combinado en artes liberales y medicina, medicina homeopática o ciencia dental.

Colegio de Pedagogía.
Admisión: Como en el colegio de artes liberales.

Se otorga un certificado a la terminación de un curso de cuatro años que llene los requisitos para el grado de bachiller e incluya cierta cantidad determinada de labor profesional.

Colegio de Ciencia aplicada.
Admisión: unidades, como en el colegio de artes liberales, agregando solamente media unidad de geometría del espacio.
Grados:
B. I.—Curso de cuatro años en algún ramo especial de ingeniería.
B. C.—Curso de cuatro años en ingeniería o química general.

Se confieren grados superiores profesionales a los graduados en ingeniería que hayan tenido cuatro años de experiencia profesional, uno de los cuales debe haber transcurrido en un puesto de responsabilidad y otro haberse dedicado a estudios del curso de graduados.

Colegio para Graduados.
Admisión: Grado de bachiller en colegio calificado.
Grados:
M. C. y M. A.—Un año de estudio posterior a los grados; tesis.
M. C. en Med.—Un año de estudio posterior a los grados y tesis, para todos aquellos que ofrecieren labor preparatoria equivalente a la del colegio de artes liberales y que hubieren completado el curso de cuatro años en la escuela de medicina.
Dr. Fil.—Tres años de estudio posterior a los grados; tesis.

Colegio de Derecho.
Admisión: Dos años de estudio de colegio.
Grado: B. L.—Curso de tres años.

Colegio de Medicina.
Admisión: Dos años de estudio de colegio, incluyendo un idioma extranjero, física, química y biología.
Grado: Dr. Med.—Curso de cuatro años.

Colegio de Medicina homeopática.
Admisión: Dos años de estudio de colegio, incluyendo un idioma extranjero, física, química y biología.
Grado: Dr. Med.—Curso de cuatro años.

Colegio Dental.
Admisión: Graduación en escuela secundaria calificada.
Grado: Dr. Cir. D.—Curso de tres años.

Colegio de Farmacia.
Admisión: Graduación en escuela secundaria calificada.
Grados:
Farmacéutico graduado.—Curso de tres años. Químico farmacéutico.—Curso de tres años.
Bachiller en farmacia.—Curso combinado, académico y profesional, arreglado a solicitud. Requisitos de admisión iguales a los del colegio de artes liberales.

Miscelánea:
Escuela de Comercio y de Ciencias Políticas y Sociales.
Colegio de Bellas Artes.
Escuela de Música.—Curso de cuatro años para el grado de B. en Mus.
Escuela de Enfermeras.

Gastos:

Instrucción—	
Colegios de artes liberales, de ingeniería, pedagogía y bellas artes	$20.00
Colegios de jurisprudencia, medicina, medicina homeopática, farmacia y ciencia dental	50.00
Alimentación, de $3.50 semanales adelante, término medio	4.00
Alojamiento, de $4 mensuales adelante, término medio	6.50

Facultad, 225.

Estudiantes, 2,850, de los cuales 28 son forasteros.

Especialmente interesante para los estudiantes extranjeros.—El objeto del colegio de pedagogía es procurar amplia educación a los maestros y ofrecer enseñanza especial en cualquier ramo particular de esta profesión a que quiera dedicarse el candidato.

El colegio de medicina está perfectamente equipado y figura entre los mejores de la nación.

LOUISIANA STATE UNIVERSITY, Baton Rouge, Louisiana, ciudad de 18,000 habitantes, a 90 millas de Nueva Orleans, ciudad de 355,958 habitantes. Institución concesionaria, mixta, fundada en 1860.

Departamento para estudiantes no graduados.

Admisión: 14 unidades, 8½ prescritas: 3 inglés, 2½ matemáticas, 2 idiomas, 1 historia. Los requisitos son iguales en todos los departamentos para no graduados excepto en el colegio de agricultura donde no se prescriben idiomas extranjeros.

Grados:

Artes y ciencias	B. A.—Cuatro años.
Colegio de pedagogía	B. A.—Cuatro años.
Agricultura	B. C.—Cuatro años.
Ingeniería	B. C.—Cuatro años.
Escuela azucarera Audubon	B. C.—Cinco años.
Escuela de derecho	B. L.—Tres años.
Escuela para graduados	M. A., M. C. I. Mec., I. Civ., I. Q. e I. Eléc.—Uno o dos años.

Gastos:

Instrucción (gratuíta para los ciudadanos de los Estados Unidos)	$100
Alimentación en la universidad, por mes	11
Alojamiento en la universidad, por mes	2
Alojamiento y pensión fuera de la universidad, por mes	18–30

Facultad, 84.

Estudiantes, 745, de los cuales 44 son forasteros.

Especialmente interesante para los estudiantes extranjeros.—La Escuela Azucarera Audubon, única instrucción de esta clase en los Estados Unidos, está excepcionalmente equipada y ofrece un curso especial para la instrucción de expertos azucareros. Incluye, además, química, agricultura, ingeniería mecánica, fabricación del azúcar, estudio y diseño de maquinarias para ingenios de azúcar, química del azúcar y análisis y cultivo especial de la caña. Se requiere labor práctica durante dos zafras tanto en los campos de azúcar y en el ingenio como en la estación experimental azucarera de la universidad; y los estudiantes adelantados pueden aceptar, durante su quinto año de estudios, propuestas con buenos salarios como ayudantes de químicos o ingenieros para el período del cultivo y la cosecha de la caña de azúcar. La biblioteca está bien provista, y el equipo material, que incluye un ingenio, campos de caña y laboratorios, está avaluado al rededor de $100,000.

Con motivo de la similitud del sistema legal del estado de Louisiana y las naciones de la América española, pues que sus diferencias de código consisten más bien en detalle, que en principios fundamentales, la labor de la escuela de derecho ha demostrado también ser muy interesante para los estudiantes de aquellas regiones.

TULANE UNIVERSITY OF LOUISIANA, Nueva Orleans, Louisiana, ciudad de 355,958 habitantes. Institución fundada en 1834.

Colegio de Artes y Ciencias.

Admisión: 15 unidades. Para el grado de bachiller en artes, 11 prescritas: 3 inglés, 3 matemáticas, 3 latín, y ya sea 2 griego o 1 historia y 1 ciencias. Para B. C., 12 prescritas: 3 inglés, 3 matemáticas, 2 idiomas, 2 ciencias, 2 historia. Pueden substituirse las dos de ciencias por una de matemáticas y una de idiomas.

Grados: B. A., B. C. y B. A. en Ped.—Curso de cuatro años.

Colegio de Tecnología.

Admisión: 15 unidades, 10 prescritas: 3 inglés, 3 matemáticas, 2 idiomas, 2 ciencias. Pueden substituirse las de ciencias por una de matemáticas y otra de idiomas.

Grados: B. Arq.—Curso de cuatro años en arquitectura.

B. I.—Curso de cuatro años en los departamentos de ingeniería mecánica, eléctrica, química, arquitectónica o civil. El diploma indicará el curso especial que se hubiere seguido.

Colegio Conmemorativo H. Sophia Newcomb (para mujeres únicamente).

Admisión: 15 unidades. Para B. A. 12 prescritas: 3 inglés, 3 matemáticas, 5 idiomas y 1 ciencias. (Pueden substituirse dos de idiomas por dos de historia.) Para B. A. en Ped., 9 prescritas: 3 inglés, 3 matemáticas, 2 idiomas y 1 ciencias.

Grados:

B. A. y B. A. en Ped.—Curso de cuatro años.

Diploma en artes—Curso de cuatro años en la escuela de artes.

B. Mús.—Curso de cuatro años en la escuela de música.

A la terminación de cursos menores se confieren diplomas en artes, música y economía doméstica.

Facultad de estudios para graduados.

Admisión: Grado de bachiller en colegio calificado.

Grados:

I. Mec., I. Civ., I Q. e I. Elec.—Un año de estudio posterior a los grados con residencia en el lugar y tesis, o dos años de labor profesional lejos de la localidad y tesis.

M. A., M. C.—Un año de estudio posterior a los grados; tesis.

Dr. Fil.—Tres años de estudio posterior a los grados; tesis.

Escuela de Medicina.

Admisión: Un año de estudio de colegio incluyendo biología, química, física y un idioma moderno además del inglés.

Grado: Dr. Med.—Curso de cuatro años.

Escuela Dental.

Admisión: 15 unidades, 8 prescritas: 3 inglés, 3 matemáticas y 2 idiomas.

Grado: Dr. Cir. D.—Curso de tres años.

Escuela de Farmacia.

Admisión: 12 unidades, 5½ prescritas: 3 inglés, 2½ matemáticas.

Grados:

Farmaceutico—Curso de dos años.

Q. Farm.—Curso de tres años.

Dr. Farm.—Un año posterior al grado de Q. Farm.

Escuela de Higiene y Medicina tropical.

Se ofrecen cursos en higiene y medicina tropical a los estudiantes de medicina, médicos y personas calificadas para este estudio.

Grado:

Dr. Sal. Pub.—Curso completo en salubridad pública.

Diploma, Dr. Med. Trop.—Curso completo en medicina tropical.

Colegio de Jurisprudencia.

Admisión: 15 unidades, 7½ **prescritas: 3 inglés, 2½ matemáticas, 2 idiomas.**

Grado: B. L.—Curso de tres años.

Gastos:

Instrucción—

Colegio de artes, ciencias y tecnología	$100
Colegio de jurisprudencia y Newcomb	90
Colegio dental	150
Colegio de medicina	150–165
Colegio de farmacia	45
Escuela para graduados	20
Alojamiento y alimentación, en la universidad	135–150
Alojamiento y alimentación, en Newcomb	230
Alojamiento y alimentación, fuera de la universidad, por mes	16–22
Gasto total por año, aproximadamente	300–500

Facultad, 300.

Estudiantes, 1,487, de los cuales 47 son extranjeros.

Especialmente interesante para los extranjeros.—La escuela de medicina es de primera clase y su situación en una ciudad de la importancia de Nueva Orleans, asegura excelentes facilidades clínicas. La escuela superior a la graduación procura excepcionales oportunidades para estudios superiores y de investigación, mientras el curso de medicina tropical atrae a los estudiantes de las comarcas meridionales. Consiste este curso en lecturas y demostraciones, períodos clínicos y de laboratorio; y considera sucesivamente las enfermedades producidas por agentes físicos y químicos, las producidas por parásitos animales y vegetales, y aquellas que obedecen a causas desconocidas. Tres laboratorios se dedican especialmente a esta labor, uno de los cuales está destinado a estudios superiores y de investigación; y además, las facilidades que ofrecen los hospitales son incomparables en los Estados Unidos.

Los cursos en la escuela de jurisprudencia se dividen en dos grupos: el de derecho natural y el de derecho civil en Louisiana. Debido a la similitud del código de Louisiana con el de las naciones de la América española, este curso será de gran interés para los estudiantes de aquellas comarcas.

El curso de ingeniería azucarera en el colegio de tecnología difiere de todos los demás que se ofrecen en los Estados Unidos. Enseña a los estudiantes a diseñar y construir fábricas de azúcar así como a hacerse capaces como superintendentes de las operaciones químicas y mecánicas. El curso de ingeniería química industrial ofrece enseñanza en química industrial aplicada y también instrucción mecánica para el diseño de instalaciones químicas manufactureras. Se dedica especial atención al dibujo concreto y escultural, a la irrigación y a la desecación. También se ofrece un curso combinado en ingeniería mecánica y eléctrica.

Esta universidad está abierta solamente para estudiantes de la raza blanca.

GOUCHER COLLEGE, Baltimore, Maryland, ciudad de 574,575 habitantes, situada cerca de Wáshington, capital de la nación y ciudad de 331,069 habitantes. Institución exclusivamente para mujeres, fundada en 1885.

Admisión: 15 unidades, 7½ prescritas: 3 inglés, 2½ matemáticas, 2 latín (4½, a ser posible).

Grado: B. A.—Curso de cuatro años.

Gastos:

Instrucción	$165
Alimentación	225
Alojamiento	105

Facultad, 32.

Estudiantes, 422, de las cuales 4 son forasteras.

JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY, Baltimore, Maryland, ciudad de 574,575 habitantes. Institución fundada en 1867.

Cursos para alumnos no graduados:

Facultad de Filosofía.

Admisión: Certificado de escuela secundaria especificando los estudios realizados en idiomas, matemáticas, historia, ciencias y dibujo. Examen de inglés, matemáticas, historia e idiomas extranjeros.

Grado: B. A.—Curso de cuatro años.

Departamento de Ingeniería.

Admisión: 15 unidades, 12 prescritas: 3 inglés, 3 matemáticas, 2 historia, 4 idiomas (latín, francés, alemán). Pueden substituirse las unidades de latín por dos de física y dos de trabajo manual.

Grado: B. C.—Curso de cuatro años.

Cursos para graduados:

Facultad de Filosofía.

Admisión: Grado de bachiller en colegio calificado.

Grados:

M. A.—Dos años de estudio posterior a la graduación; tesis.

Dr. Fil.—Tres años de estudio posterior a la graduación; tesis.

Facultad de Medicina.

Admision: Grado de bachiller en colegio calificado o instrucción equivalente a la necesaria para este grado, incluyendo latín, francés, alemán, biología, física y química.

Grado: Dr. Med.—Cuatro años de estudio posterior a la graduación.

Departamento de Ingeniería.

Admisión: Grado de bachiller en colegio calificado.

Grados:

M. en I. Civ., M. en I. Elec., y M. en I. Mec.—Dos años de estudio posterior a la graduación.

Dr. Fil.—Tres años de estudio posterior a la graduación; tesis.

Gastos:

Instrucción	$150
Instrucción en la escuela de medicina	240

Alimentación, de $3.50 semanales, adelante.

Alojamiento, de $1.50 semanales, adelante.

Facultad, 228.

Estudiantes, 900, de los cuales 7 son forasteros.

Especialmente interesante para los estudiantes extranjeros.—Desde su fundación se dedicó principalmente la universidad Johns Hopkins a los estudios para graduados, formando en la vanguardia de esta línea en el país, y manteniendo siempre muy alto el estandarte de la institución en cuanto a la calidad de instrucción y a la labor exigida a los alumnos de todos sus departamentos. Es una de las pocas universidades en los Estados Unidos que requieren dos años de estudio en vez de uno para el grado de maestro. La escuela de medicina figura en primer rango entre las instituciones de su clase en el país. Estrechas relaciones entre la universidad y el hospital Johns Hopkins ofrecen a los estudios excelentes facilidades clínicas procurándoles la ocasión de desarrollar en gran escala la labor de laboratorio y la práctica de hospitales.

Los miembros de la escuela para graduados reciben gajes como internos en el hospital

La escuela técnica, inaugurada en 1913, se distingue igualmente por la perfección de sistema y de resultados que caracteriza todos los otros departamentos de la universidad. Cursos para alumnos graduados y no graduados se ofrecen ahora en ingeniería civil, eléctrica y mecánica; y una partida liberal en el presupuesto asegura facilidades y equipo completo para los nuevos edificios y laboratorios.

CLARK UNIVERSITY Y CLARK COLLEGE, Worcester, Massachusetts, ciudad de 154,941 habitantes.

La universidad y el colegio Clark, aun cuando son instituciones independientes con diferente cuerpo de profesores, funcionan bajo la dirección de la misma junta administrativa y hacen uso de los mismos edificios y equipo de instrucción.

La Universidad, institución mixta, fundada en 1887, ofrece instrucción solamente en ocho departamentos para graduados.

Admisión: Grado de bachiller en colegio calificado, o instrucción equivalente.

Grados:

M. A.—Un año por lo menos de estudio posterior a la graduación; tesis.

Dr. Fil.—Tres años por lo menos de estudio posterior a la graduación; tesis.

Facultad, 23.

Estudiantes, 90, de los cuales 8 son extranjeros.

El Colegio, fundado en 1902.

Admisión: Graduación en escuela secundaria calificada habiendo completado 15 unidades. En caso de merecimientos especiales, se aceptarán 14 unidades.

Grado: B. A.—Curso de tres años.

Facultad, 24.

Estudiantes, 156, de cuales 3 son forasteros.

Gastos:

Instrucción—

Colegio	$50
Universidad	100

Alimentación, en los refectorios del colegio, $4 semanales.

Cuarto, $1.50 a $3 semanales.

Gasto total por año, aproximadamente, de 300 adelante.

Especialmente interesante para los estudiantes extranjeros.—La universidad es estrictamente una escuela para graduados, que se dedica en primer lugar a investigaciones especiales, y en segundo lugar a la enseñanza de maestros e investigadores. Para la consecusión de ambos objetos se insiste especialmente sobre la importancia de fomentar estrechas relaciones personales entre profesores y alumnos, lo cual el relativamente pequeño número de alumnos y el numeroso personal de maestros ha contribuído a incrementar.

Digna de especial mención, tanto por la competencia de sus profesores como por la manera cómo los candidatos se asimilan las clases, es la labor en educación, denominación bajo la cual se incluye instrucción psicológica y pedagógica. Esta universidad es una de las pocas que posee un excelente museo pedagógico, equipado con todos los modernos adelantos. Un instituto para niños procura igualmente facilidades especiales para los diversos ramos de la educación infantil.

El colegio Clark es, entre los mencionados en este boletín, el único que confiere regularmente el grado de bachiller en cursos de tres años. Obtiene este resultado, sin disminuir los requisitos para el grado, exigiendo mayor suma de labor semanal de cada alumno; excluyendo actividades extrañas al estudio, como los ejercicios atléticos interescolares que distraen mucho tiempo de otras labores; sosteniendo numerosa facultad; y separando inmediatamente a los candidatos que no pueden mantener este nivel.

La biblioteca, usada conjuntamente por la universidad y el colegio, es excepcional por su clase y administración. Se sostiene con una dotación independiente que permite la compra de todos los libros necesarios para cualquiera investigación.

HARVARD UNIVERSITY, Cambridge, Massachusetts, ciudad de 109,045 habitantes, contigua a Boston, 722,465 habitantes. Fundada en 1636, es la más antigua de las universidades de los Estados Unidos.

Colegio Harvard, departamento de artes y ciencias para alumnos no graduados.

Admisión: 16½ unidades. Dos formas de examen.

1. Examen en todas las materias; 11½ o 12½ unidades prescritas para el curso de B. A.: 3 inglés, 2 griego o 3 latín, 2 idiomas modernos, 2½ matemáticas, 1 historia, 1 ciencias. Para el curso de B. C. 10½ unidades prescritas: 3 inglés, 3 idiomas modernos, 2½ matemáticas, 1 historia, 1 ciencias.
2. Certificado de escuela secundaria especificando la labor en idiomas, ciencias, matemáticas e historia. Examen en inglés, un idioma extranjero, matemáticas o ciencias y cualquier otra materia.

Grados: B. A. y B. C.

Escuela de Artes y Ciencias para graduados.

Admisión: Grado de bachiller en colegio calificado.

Grados:

M. A.—Un año de estudio concienzudo posterior a los grados.

Dr. Fil.—Dos años por lo menos de estudios superiores; tesis; exámenes. "Para el grado de doctor en filosofía los requisitos de tiempo son completamente secundarios."

Escuela de Ciencia Aplicada para graduados.—Incluye escuelas de ingeniería, de minas, de arquitectura y arquitectura de perspectiva, de selvicultura y de biología aplicada.

Admisión: Grado de bachiller en colegio calificado.

Grados: M. I. Civ., M. I. Mec., M. I., I. Met., M. I. Eléc., M. Arq., M. Arq. de perspectiva, M. Selv. y M. C.—Dos años de estudio posterior a la graduación. Dr. C.—Iguales requisitos a los de doctor en filosofía.

Escuela de Administración Comercial para graduados.—Instrucción científica sobre los principios de organización comercial, y las proyecciones particulares del comercio moderno.

Admisión: Grado de bachiller en colegio calificado.

Grados: M. Ad. Com.—Dos años de estudio posterior a la graduación: tesis.

Escuela de Teología.

Admisión: B. A. o estudios equivalentes.

Grados:

B. T. S.—Curso de tres años.

M. T. S.—Un año de estudio superior al grado de bachiller en teología sagrada.

Dr. T.—Dos años por lo menos de estudios superiores; tesis; exámenes.

Escuela de Derecho.

Admisión: Grado de bachiller en colegio calificado.

Grados:

B. L.—Curso de tres años.

Dr. Jur.—Un año de estudio superior después del grado de bachiller en leyes.

Escuela de Medicina.

Admisión: Dos años de estudio de colegio.

Grados:

Dr. Med.—Curso de cuatro años.

Dr. Sal. Púb.—Un año de estudio superior al curso de doctor en medicina.

Escuela de Medicina para graduados.

Admisión: Dr. Med.

Escuela Dental.

Admisión: Graduación en escuela secundaria.

Grados: Dr. Med. D.—Curso de tres años.

Escuela para Oficiales de Sanidad.
Admisión: Grado de bachiller en colegio calificado, o de Dr. Med.
Certificado: Cert. en Sal. Púb.

Miscelánea.
Institución Bussey de Biología Aplicada.
Arboretum Arnold.
Observatorio Astronómico.
Museos de zoología, etnología, arqueología, etc.
Jardín Botánico.
Herbario Gray.
Biblioteca.

Gastos:

Instrucción en el colegio Harvard y las escuelas para graduados	$150
Escuela de medicina	225
Escuela dental	200-150
Depósito de los alumnos del Colegio Harvard y de las escuelas para graduados	400
Depósito de los alumnos de la escuela dental y la de medicina	50
Alojamiento en los edificios especiales	50-200
Alimentación en Memorial Hall	5. 25 semanales.
Alimentación en Foxcroft Hall	3. 50 semanales.

Facultad, 803.
Estudiantes, 5,407, de los cuales 148 son extranjeros.

Colegio Radcliffe. Institución afiliada a la universidad Harvard. Especial para mujeres.
Departamento para no graduados.
Admisión: Como en el colegio Harvard.
Grado: B. A.—Curso de cuatro años.
Departamento para graduados.
Admisión: Grado de bachiller en colegio calificado.
Grados:
M. A.—Un año de estudio superior al grado.
Dr. Fil.—(Véase Escuela de Artes y Ciencias para graduados.)
Gastos:

Instrucción	$200
Alimentación	216
Alojamiento	72-324

Facultad, 122.
Estudiantes, 568, de los cuales 7 son extranjeros.

Especialmente interesante para los estudiantes extranjeros.—El Colegio Harvard ofrece ventajas excepcionales para el estudio anterior a los grados, tanto por las espléndidas escuelas para graduados que la universidad incluye, como por el hecho de que muchos de los alumnos distinguidos relacionados con estas escuelas dictan clases a los estudiantes no graduados.

Las escuelas de ingeniería, arquitectura, arquitectura de perspectiva, y selvicultura son estrictamente escuelas para graduados y exigen, en consecuencia, más extensa instrucción general y especial de lo que ordinariamente se requiere para obtener el grado en aquellos departamentos.

La escuela de medicina ocupa en Boston un grupo de modernos y espaciosos edificios magníficamente equipados y a corta distancia de los hospitales a que se hallan afiliados. Se ofrece instrucción clínica en diecisiete hospitales, dispensarios y enfermerías. Entre este número se incluyen las principales instituciones sanitarias del estado y de la ciudad. "Se llevan a cabo aproximadamente ochenta nombramientos anuales de los alumnos, como internos y asistentes en los hospitales dentro y fuera de la ciudad por tiempo de servicios que varía entre seis meses y dos años." Casi todos los graduados pueden obtener alguno de estos nombramientos.

La escuela para oficiales de sanidad, sostenida por la universidad Harvard y el instituto de tecnología Massachusetts, prepara a los jóvenes para puestos administrativos de oficiales de sanidad, miembros de las juntas de salubridad, secretarios, agentes o inspectores de todas las organizaciones de sanidad. Incluye este curso ciencias médicas, biológicas, higiénicas y de ingeniería a la vez que materias de administración práctica sanitaria.

La escuela de artes y ciencias para graduados es una de las mejor equipadas de su clase. Algunos departamentos se señalan en razón de la alta competencia de sus profesores y de su excepcional equipo material, como los de astronomía, biología, botánica, química, literatura comparada, economía y sociología, educación, estilo y literatura inglesa, estilo y literatura alemana, historia y administración gubernativa, filosofía y psicología, literatura y romance.

MASSACHUSETTS AGRICULTURAL COLLEGE, Amherst, Massachusetts, ciudad de 5,000 habitantes. Institución concesionaria, mixta, incorporada en 1863.

Cursos para alumnos no graduados; cuatro años.

Admisión: 14 unidades, 8½ prescritas; 2½ matemáticas, 3 inglés, 2 idiomas modernos, 1 historia.

Grado: B. C.

Durante los dos primeros años el estudio es casi igual; pero en el segundo semestre del año segundo del curso, elige el alumno alguna materia en la que desee hacer estudios especiales: agricultura, agronomía, ganadería, lechería, cría de aves, floricultura, selvicultura, jardinería de perspectiva, pomología, química agrícola, economía entomológica, ciencia rural social, microbiología, fisiología y patología de las plantas, o educación agrícola. En tales materias y las que con ellas se relacionen, está basado el estudio de los dos últimos años.

Escuela para graduados.

Admisión: Grado de bachiller en colegio calificado.

Grados:

M. C.—Año y medio de estudio en dos materias en curso posterior a la graduación; tesis; examen.

Dr. Fil.—Tres años de estudio posterior a la graduación, en tres materias; tesis; examen.

Gastos:

Instrucción (gratuita para los habitantes de Massachusetts); para los de otros estados	$40
Instrucción para los extranjeros	120
Alojamiento	39–110
Alimentación por semana en los refectorios del colegio	4
Gasto total por año	240–350

Facultad, 67.

Estudiantes, 610, de los cuales 7 son extranjeros.

Especialmente interesante para los estudiantes extranjeros.—El equipo para labor entomológica es excepcionalmente completo. Incluye una biblioteca, un nuevo edificio entomológico y zoológico a prueba de incendios, con laboratorios, museos y salones de lectura; un edificio de ocho salas para el estudio de la apicultura, y un apiario con cincuenta colonias de abejas.

El curso en pomología incluye la pomología práctica, sistemática y comercial, con clases adicionales sobre el riego. Para este curso posee el colegio veinte acres de huerto.

Cursos excelentes se ofrecen en fisiología y patología de las plantas, horticultura, química agrícola, cultivo de las plantas, floricultura, jardinería de perspectiva, jardinería industrial, economía agrícola, sociología rural, administración de granjas, lechería, microbiología, cría de aves, y educación agrícola.

MASSACHUSETTS INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY, Boston, Massachusetts, ciudad de 722,465 habitantes. Institución mixta, incorporada en 1861.

Curso para estudiantes no graduados.

Admisión: Examen. Materias prescritas: álgebra, geometría plana y geometría del espacio, física, francés, alemán, inglés e historia. Labor satisfactoria en dos clases a elección que se hubieren seguido durante dos años. A los estudiantes de naciones donde no se habla el inglés, se les permite substituir su propio idioma por el alemán o el francés.

Se ofrecen cursos de cuatro años en ingeniería civil, mecánica, de minas y eléctrica; en metalurgia, arquitectura, química, biología y sanidad pública; en física, ciencias generales, ingeniería química y sanitaria, geología, arquitectura naval e ingeniería marítima, electroquímica e ingeniería administrativa.

Se ofrecen cursos de cinco años a los alumnos no graduados que deseen combinar dos clases análogas y agregar a sus estudios estrictamente profesionales labor de naturaleza más amplia o distribuir el estudio de cuatro años en cinco.

Se exige labor especial en química e ingeniería química durante el verano entre el primero y segundo año; y en ingeniería civil y sanitaria, de minas y metalúrgica, entre el segundo y tercer año. Durante el verano gozan además los estudiantes de especiales facilidades en conexión con los diversos departamentos, para ocuparse de labor agraria o de visitas e informes sobre minas o establecimientos industriales.

Una tesis, un informe o diseño original se exige a la terminación de cada curso.

Grado conferido: B. C.

Cursos para graduados.

Admisión: Grado de bachiller en colegio calificado o escuela científica.

Grados:

M. C.—Un año de estudio superior siempre que la labor previa haya sido equivalente al curso para graduados; tesis.

Dr. Fil.—Tres años de estudio superior e investigaciones, especialmente en ciencias generales.

Dr. I.—Tres años de estudio superior e investigaciones, especialmente en materia de ingeniería.

Escuela para Oficiales de Sanidad. Establecimiento solidario con la universidad y el instituto Harvard para la educación de los alumnos en salubridad pública.

Admisión: Grado de bachiller o doctor en medicina en colegio calificado.

Certificado: Diploma en Salubridad Pública.

Gastos:

Instrucción	$250
Alojamiento y pensión, por semana	6–8
Depósito para desperfectos de laboratorio	15–50

Facultad, 128 profesores y además 163 miembros del personal de enseñanza.

Estudiantes, 1,816, de los cuales 114 son extranjeros.

Especialmente interesante para los estudiantes extranjeros.—Próximas a esta institución se encuentran las bibliotecas de Boston; y el distrito manufacturero en que está situado el instituto ofrece ventajas incalculables para labor práctica y de observación. El curso de arquitectura naval e ingeniería marítima se facilita por la proximidad del instituto al campo naval y al astillero del rio Fore. Las clases en esta departamento incluyen el estudio de maquinarias, termodinamos, mecánica, hidráulica, ingeniería calefacción, turbinas a vapor e ingeniería marítima. El instituto ofrece igualmente un curso completo de cinco años en construcción naval y ha sido designado por el Departamento de Marina de los Estados Unidos para la instrucción profesional de los oficiales nombrados para el cuerpo de construcción naval. Para este curso la cuota es de $500 en vez de $250 como en las demás clases.

Los estudiantes de arquitectura pueden elegir entre los cursos siguientes: arquitectura general con estudio especial sobre el dibujo y el arte; e ingeniería arquitectónica, con estudio especial del dibujo de estructura y de ingeniería.

El curso para graduados en ingeniería aeronáutica incluye la teoría dinámica de los cuerpos rígidos y flúidos y la teoría general y dibujo de los aerostatos. Un laboratorio aerodinámico procura toda clase de facilidades para investigaciones y experimentos.

Es digno de especial mención el curso de ingeniería mecánica, civil, química y eléctrica.

La importancia del estudio de laboratorio se ha reconocido siempre en este instituto, que posee varias oficinas perfectamente equipadas, dedicadas especialmente muchas de ellas a investigaciones superiores. El equipo de los laboratorios eléctricos, mecánicos e hidráulicos es de lo más completo en su clase.

Los estudiantes matriculados en ingeniería civil, mecánica, de minas o metalúrgica, así como eléctrica o sanitaria, gozan de todos los derechos y privilegios de los alumnos de las escuelas profesionales de la universidad Harvard y pueden optar los grados que confiere la universidad además de los que otorga el instituto.

El instituto tiene ahora en construcción una espléndida instalación en Cambridge, en las márgenes del rio Charles, la que estará lista para funcionar en septiembre de 1916.

MOUNT HOLYOKE COLLEGE, South Hadley, Massachusetts, ciudad de 5,000 habitantes. Institución exclusivamente para mujeres, fundada en 1836.

Admisión: 15 unidades, 11 prescritas: 3 inglés, 1 historia, 4 latín, 3 matemáticas.

Grados:

B. A.—Curso de cuatro años.

M. A.—Un año de estudio posterior a la graduación y tesis para las que hayan recibido el grado de bachiller en colegio calificado.

Gastos:

Instrucción	$150
Alojamiento y pensión	275
Gasto total por año, incluyendo gastos incidentales y de laboratorio	500

Facultad, 90.

Estudiantes, 796, de las cuales 14 son forasteras.

SIMMONS COLLEGE, Boston, Massachusetts, ciudad de 722,465 habitantes. Inaugurado en 1902.

Admisión: 72 "horas," 34 prescritas: 12 inglés, 8 idiomas, 10 matemáticas, 4 historia.

Grados:

B. C.—Curso de cuatro años en economía doméstica, estudios para secretariado, ciencia bibliotecaria, ciencias generales o labor social.

M. C.—Un año de estudio posterior al grado de bachiller. Se conceden diplomas a los estudiantes que hubieren seguido los cursos menores en cualquiera de los departamentos arriba mencionados o en los de enseñanza industrial.

Gastos:

Instrucción	$125
Alojamiento y pensión	200-300
Gasto total por año	415

Facultad, 97.

Estudiantes, 1,074, de los cuales 7 son forasteros.

Especialmente interesante para los estudiantes extranjeros.—El colegio Simmons ofrece, para mujeres solamente, clases combinadas de estudios profesionales y de cultura general, con el objeto de preparar a sus alumnas para conseguir la subsistencia de manera independiente.

Además del curso regular de cuatro años hay clases de uno y dos años para los estudiantes graduados en colegio que deseen obtener el grado de bachiller, y cursos de un año para aquellas que no aspiran a ningún grado. El programa está ampliamente determinado en todos los departamentos, insistiendo sobre el lado práctico de los estudios.

SMITH COLLEGE, Northampton, Massachusetts, ciudad de 19,000 habitantes. Institución solamente para mujeres, fundada en 1871.

Admisión: Para estudiantes no graduadas, 14½ unidades, 10½ prescritas: 3 inglés, 2½ matemáticas, 1 historia, 4 latín o griego.

Grado: B. A.—Curso de cuatro años.

Admisión: Para estudiantes graduadas, grado de bachiller en colegio calificado.

Grados:

M. A.—Un año de estudio posterior a la graduación. Se confiere el mismo grado a los candidatos por estudios hechos fuera del colegio Smith, pasados tres años de la graduación y a la presentación de una tesis.

Dr. Fil. (se confiere rara vez).—Tres años de estudio posterior a los grados; tesis.

Gastos:

Instrucción	$150
Alojamiento y alimentación en el colegio	300
Alojamiento y alimentación, fuera del colegio, por semana	6–12

Facultad, 126.

Estudiantes, 1,638, de las cuales 2 son extranjeras.

Especialmente interesante para las estudiantes de fuera.—Se ha creado recientemente un fondo de $7,500 por la clase de 1890 para establecer una beca para estudiantes latinoamericanas en dicha clase. Esta fondo producirá anualmente de $337.50 a $375, concediéndose la beca a los candidatos más meritorios de las naciones latinoamericanas.

TUFTS COLLEGE, Tufts College, Massachusetts, cerca de Boston, ciudad de 722,465 habitantes. Institución fundada en 1852.

Escuela de Artes liberales, para estudiantes no graduados.

Admisión: 15 unidades, 8½ prescritas: 3 inglés, 2 idiomas, 1 historia, 2½ matemáticas.

Grados:

B. A. y B. C.—Cursos de cuatro años.

B. C. Q.—Curso de cuatro años.

Escuela de Ingeniería.

Admisión: 14 unidades, 9 prescritas: 3 inglés, 2 idiomas, 1 historia, 2½ matemáticas.

Grado: B. C.—Curso de cuatro años en ingeniería civil, de estructura, mecánica, eléctrica, y química.

Escuela para graduados.

Admisión: Grado de bachiller en colegio calificado.

Grados: M. A. y M. C.—Un año de estudio posterior a los grados; tesis.

Escuela Teológica Crane (universalista).

Admisión: Los mismos requisitos que en la escuela de artes liberales.

Grado: B. T.—Curso de cinco años. Este grado se confiere también a los estudiantes que hubieren optado el grado de bachiller en colegio calificado y terminado un curso de tres años en la escuela teológica.

Colegio Jackson. Colegio para mujeres, anterior a la graduación, equivalente a la escuela de artes liberales.

Admisión: 15 unidades, como en la escuela ya mencionada.

Grados: B. A. y B. C.—Cursos de cuatro años.

Escuela de Medicina (Boston).

Admisión: Un año de estudio de colegio, incluyendo física, química, biología y alemán o francés.

Grado: Dr. Med.—Curso de cuatro años.

Escuela Dental (Boston).

Admisión: 14 unidades, 8½ prescritas: 3 inglés, 2 idiomas, 1 física, 2½ matemáticas.

Grado: Dr. Med. D.—Curso de tres años.

Gastos:

Instrucción:	
Escuela de artes liberales, Colegio Jackson	$125
Escuela para graduados	100
Escuela Teológica Crane (inclusive cuarto)	100
Escuelas dental y de medicina	150
Escuela de ingeniería	175
Alimentación en el colegio, por semana	4. 50
Alojamiento en el colegio	25. 80
Alojamiento y alimentación en Boston, de $5.50 a $7 semanales.	
Gasto total por año	350–450

Facultad, 262.

Estudiantes, 1,241, de los cuales 33 son extranjeros.

Especialmente interesante para los estudiantes de fuera.—La escuela dental está perfectamente equipada, y su situación en una ciudad de la importancia de Boston garantiza las mayores facilidades clínicas.

Se ofrece un curso de cuatro años en química para el grado de bachiller en ciencias, con el objeto de preparar a los estudiantes para el desempeño de puestos de responsabilidad como químicos industriales. La escuela de ingeniería procura cursos en ingeniería civil, eléctrica, mecánica, química y estructural. El estudio de los dos primeros años es casi igual en todos los departamentos y lleva el propósito de formar a los estudiantes una sólida base científica para la labor en el campo elegido, proporcionándoles instrucción tan vasta como sea possible. Los estudios técnicos superiores, en los diferentes ramos de ingeniería comienzan en el tercer año.

WORCESTER POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE, Worcester, Massachusetts, ciudad de 154,941 habitantes. Institución fundada en 1865.

Departamento para alumnos no graduados.

Admisión: Graduación en escuela secundaria calificada, incluyendo el estudio de inglés, álgebra, geometría plana y geometría del espacio, historia, dos idiomas extranjeros de los cuales uno debe ser francés o alemán; química o física.

Grado: B. C.—Curso de cuatro años; tesis.

Departamento para graduados.

Admisión: Grado de bachiller en colegio calificado.

Grados:

M. C.—Un año de estudios superiores; tesis.

Dr. C.—Tres años de estudios superiores; tesis.

I. Mec., I. Elec., I. Civ., I. Q.—Un año de estudios superiores; tesis. Estos grados se confieren igualmente a los alumnos del instituto que hayan tenido tres años de experiencia profesional, incluyendo labor de responsabilidad en el ramo a cuyo grado aspiran, y que presenten una tesis.

Gastos.

Instrucción	$150
Alojamiento y alimentación, de $4.25 por semana adelante.	
Gasto total por año	500–600

Facultad, 59.

Estudiantes, 541, de los cuales 12 son extranjeros.

Especialmente interesante para los estudiantes extranjeros.—Se ofrecen cursos completos de ingeniería mecánica, civil y eléctrica, de química y ciencias generales. Insiste el instituto especialmente sobre la labor práctica, habiendo sido la primera institución que estableció talleres en conexión con el curso de ingeniería. Estos talleres completan los laboratorios perfectamente equipados y se manejan comercialmente, proporcionando así a los estudiantes valiosa educación en administración científica. En el departamento de ingeniería eléctrica se ofrece instrucción especial en dibujo de ingeniería eléctrica y ferroviaria.

MICHIGAN COLLEGE OF MINES, Houghton, Michigan, ciudad de 6,000 habitantes. Fundado en 1885.

Admisión: 15 unidades. 9 prescritas: 3 inglés, 2 matemáticas, 1 física, 2 idiomas, ½ teneduría de libros, ½ fisiografía.

Grado: I. M.—Curso de cuatro años. Si los estudiantes asisten a las clases de verano, pueden llenar los requisitos en tres años de calendario. Los candidatos pueden recibir a solicitud el grado de B. C.

Gastos:

Instrucción para los habitantes de Michigán	$25
Instrucción para los estudiantes de fuera	150
Gasto anual mínimo	550
Alojamiento y alimentación, de $25 mensuales adelante.	

Facultad, 25.

Estudiantes, 135, de los cuales 8 son extranjeros.

UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN, Ann Arbor, Michigan, ciudad de 14,000 habitantes. Institución mixta, fundada en 1837.

Colegio de literatura, artes y ciencias para estudiantes no graduados.

Admisión: 15 unidades, 8 prescritas: 3 inglés, 2 idiomas, 2 matemáticas, 1 ciencias.

Grados:

B. A.—Curso de cuatro años. Los estudiantes que hubieren completado la labor en matemáticas y en ciencias físicas y biológicas pueden, si lo desean, recibir el grado de B. C.

B. C. en Selv.—Curso de cuatro años en selvicultura.

Curso especial en dibujo de perspectiva, 5 años, con opción al grado de B. C. o B. A. al final del tercer año. Grado de M. Dib. Persp. al terminar el quinto año.

B. C. Q.—Curso de cuatro años con estudios especiales en química.

Colegio de ingeniería y arquitectura.

Admisión: 15 unidades, 11½ o 12 prescritas: 3 inglés, 3 matemáticas, 1 física, 1 historia, 2 idiomas, 1½ ó 2 elegidas de las siguientes materias: química 1, trigonometría ½, francés o alemán 1 ó 2, griego o latín 1 ó 2, labores manuales 1.

Grados:

B. C. en ingeniería—Curso de cuatro años.

B. C. en arquitectura—Curso de cuatro años.

Escuela de Medicina.

Admisión: Dos años de estudio de colegio.

Grado: Dr. Med.—Curso de cuatro años.

- Escuela de Derecho.
  - Admisión: Dos años de estudio de colegio.
  - Grados:
    - B. L.—Curso de tres años.
    - M. L.—Un año después del grado de bachiller en leyes.
    - Dr. Jur.—Curso de tres años para los que hubieren optado el grado de bachiller en colegio calificado.
- Colegio de Farmacia.
  - Admisión: 15 unidades, 8 prescritas: 3 inglés, 2 idiomas, 2 matemáticas, 1 física.
  - Grados:
    - Farm. graduado—Curso de años.
    - Q. Farm.—Curso de tres años.
    - B. C. en farmacia—Curso de cuatro años.
- Escuela de Medicina Homeopática—Ofrece clases en medicina y cirugía, especialmente en el sistema homeopático.
  - Admisión: Un año de estudio de colegio; dos años de estudio de colegio en el otoño de 1916.
  - Grado: Dr. Med.—Curso de cuatro años.
- Colegio de Cirugía Dental.
  - Admisión: 15 unidades, 9 prescritas: 3 inglés, 2 matemáticas, 2 ciencias, 2 latín. Un año de estudio de colegio en el otoño de 1916.
  - Grados:
    - Dr. Cir. D.—Curso de tres años.
    - Dr. C. D.—Un año por lo menos de estudios superiores. Dos años de práctica y la publicación de artículos originales de valor científico, son requisitos para este grado.
- Escuela para Graduados.
  - Admisión: Grado de bachiller en colegio calificado.
  - Grados:
    - M. A. y M. C.—Un año de estudios superiores.
    - M. C. en Selv.—Un año de estudios superiores al grado de bachiller en selvicultura.
    - M. en dibujo de perspectiva—Un año de estudios superiores al grado de B. A.
    - M. C. en ingeniería—Un año de estudios superiores al grado de B. C.
    - M. C. en arquitectura—Un año de estudios superiores al grado de B. C. en arquitectura.
    - M. C. en Sal. Púb.—Un año de estudios superiores al grado de Dr. Med. Para optar este título necesitan también los estudiantes tener el de B. A. o B. C.
  - Grados superiores de ingeniería: I. Civ., Mec., Elec. y Q.; Arq. Nav., Mar., e I. Arq. (Por lo menos cinco años deben haber transcurrido después de optar el grado de bachiller para matricularse en la clase de ingeniería, debiendo haberse dedicado por lo menos uno de ellos a desempeñar un puesto de responsabilidad en cualquier trabajo profesional.)—Un año de estudios superiores; tesis.
    - Dr. Fil. o Dr. C.—Tres años de estudios superiores; tesis.
    - Dr. Sal. Pub.—Dos años después del grado de Dr. Med. Tesis. (El grado de bachiller es requisito indispensable para este curso.)
- Gastos:
  - Cuota anual—
    - Colegio de literatura, ciencias, artes, y departamento para graduados.

Habitantes de Michigán	$42
Estudiantes de fuera	52

Colegios de ingeniería y arquitectura, escuela de medicina, colegio de farmacia y escuela de medicina homeópata.

Gastos—Continúa.	
Cuota anual—Continúa.	
Habitantes de Michigán	57
Estudiantes de fuera	67
Escuela de derecho:	
Habitantes de Michigán	67
Estudiantes de fuera	77
Colegio de cirugía dental:	
Habitantes de Michigán	77
Estudiantes de fuera	107
Gastos de matrícula, por una sola vez:	
Habitantes de Michigán	10
Estudiantes de fuera	25
Alimentación, de $3.50 a $6 semanales.	
Alojamiento, de $0.75 a $2.50 semanales.	
Gasto total por año	400-500

Facultad, 362.

Estudiantes, 5,520, de los cuales 159 son extranjeros.

Especialmente interesante para los estudiantes extranjeros.—La labor de selvicultura se continúa durante los cuatro años del curso para estudiantes no graduados. Se recomiendan las clases para ingenieros entomólogos y patólogos forestales, expertos forestales en forrajes, guardabosques civiles y demás.

La escuela de derecho y la de medicina así como la escuela dental son de primera clase.

Se proveen amplias facilidades en materia de museos, laboratorios y cuartos de operaciones para la medicina dental, y se ofrecen cursos superiores en este ramo.

Las clases de ingeniería civil y mecánica son dignas de especial mención. El estudiante elige el campo a que desea dedicarse entre los grupos en que está dividida la labor general. La ingeniería civil incluye ingeniería de estructura, hidráulica, de transporte, sanitaria y municipal, ingeniería geodésica y conocimientos generales de ingeniería. La ingeniería de fuerza motriz de vapor, de combustión interna, el diseño de maquinarias, la ingeniería hidromecánica, de calefacción y ventilación, de automóviles, y conocimientos generales de ingeniería, forman los diversos grupos de la ingeniería mecánica.

Los estudiantes pueden obtener crédito para el grado por medio de estudios suplementarios en la estación del verano.

Esta universidad es una de las pocas que ofrece cursos en ingeniería marítima y arquitectura naval. Posee un laboratorio equipado especialmente para estos estudios, con un tanque naval para diversos experimentos respecto a resistencia, propulsión y manejo del timón que se llevan a cabo sobre modelos de buques y propulsores de hélice.

El colegio de farmacia, además de las clases fuertes establecidas para alumnos no graduados, ofrece facilidades para estudios superiores en el análisis de drogas y alimentos, ensayo de medicinas, farmacología, bacteriología, y química fisiológica.

La universidad fué una de las primeras en reconocer la necesidad de educar especialistas en dibujo de perspectiva y en establecer clases para este objeto. El estudio de esta materia comprende cinco años y combina, con gran cantidad de estudios independientes de la profesión, clases de progreso cívico, diseño de cimientos de viviendas, casas de campo y cementerios, planos de ciudades y parques, selvicultura, arquitectura, bellas artes, agrimensura e ingeniería municipal.

UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA, Minneapolis, Minnesota, ciudad de 333,472 habitantes. Institución concesionaria, mixta, fundada en 1851.

Colegio de Ciencias, Literatura y Artes, para estudiantes no graduados.
Admisión: 15 unidades, prescritas: 4 inglés, de las cuales se aceptarán tres siempre que ofrezca el alumno 4 unidades de idiomas extranjeros, y 2 matemáticas.
Grados:
B. A.—Curso de cuatro años en ciencias, literatura y artes.
B. C.—Curso de cuatro años combinado de medicina y artes. Admisión en iguales condiciones que para B. A.
B. Mús.—Curso de cuatro años en artes y música. La admisión requiere prueba de habilidad en música y 15 unidades en este arte.

Colegio de Ingeniería y Artes mecánicas.
Admisión: 15 unidades; prescritas; 3 inglés, 3 matemáticas y 1 química.
Grados:
B. C. en ingeniería—Curso de cuatro años.
B. C. en arquitectura—Curso de cuatro años.
I. Civ., I. Mec., I. Elec., I. Arq. y Arq.—Curso de cinco años; tesis.

Colegio de Agricultura (St. Paul).
Admisión: 15 unidades, como en el colegio de ciencias, literatura y artes.
Grado: B. C.—Curso de cuatro años en agricultura y economía doméstica.

Colegio de Selvicultura (St. Paul).
Admisión: 15 unidades, como en el colegio de ciencias, literatura y artes.
Grado: B. C.—Curso de cuatro años en agricultura y economía doméstica.

Colegio de Selvicultura (St. Paul).
Admisión: 15 unidades, como en el colegio de ciencias, literatura y artes.
Grado: B. C.—Curso de cuatro años.

Escuela de Derecho.
Admisión: Dos años de estudio de colegio.
Grado: B. L. —Curso de tres años.

Escuela de Medicina.
Admisión: Dos años de estudio de colegio, incluyendo física, química, biología, ciencias sociales y alemán.
Grados:
B. C.—Curso de cuatro años: dos de artes, dos de medicina.
Dr. Med.—Cuatro años de estudio, de los cuales debe dedicarse uno a la práctica como interno en un hospital calificado o en un laboratorio.

Colegio Dental.
Admisión: 15 unidades, de las cuales están prescritas: 4 inglés, o 3 de inglés si están acompañadas por 4 en algún idioma extranjero, 2 matemáticas y química.
Grado: Dr. Civ. D.—Curso de tres años.

Colegio de Farmacia.
Admisión: Graduación en escuela secundaria calificada.
Grados:
Farm. graduado—Curso de dos años.
Q. Farm.—Curso de tres años.
B. C. en farmacia—Curso de cuatro años.
M. Farm.—Curso de cinco años.
Dr. Farm.—Curso de seis años.

Escuela de Minas.
Admisión: 15 unidades, prescritas: 4 de inglés, o tres si están acompañadas por 4 en algún idioma extranjero, y 2 de matemáticas.
Cursos de cinco años. (Los estudiantes con suficiente preparación en matemáticas pueden completar el curso en cuatro años). Se requiere una tesis.
Ingeniería de minas, grado: I. M.
Ingeniería de minas (con especialidad en geología), grado: I. M. (Geologia.)
Ingeniería metalúrgica, grado: I. Met.

Escuela de Química.
Admisión: 15 unidades, prescritas: 4 inglés, o tres de inglés si están acompañadas por cuatro en algún idioma extranjero, y 2 de matemáticas.
Cursos:
Química analítica, cuatro años.
Grado: B. C. en química.
Artes y química, cinco años.
Grados:
B. A. a la terminación del cuarto año.
B. C. en química a la terminación del quinto año.
Química aplicada, cinco años.
Grados:
B. C. a la terminación del cuarto año.
I. Q. a la terminación del quinto año.

Colegio de Pedagogía
Admisión: Dos años de estudio de colegio.
Grado: B. A. en pedagogía, curso de dos años.

Escuela para Graduados.
Admisión: Grado de bachiller en colegio calificado.
Grados:
M. A. y M. C.—Un año de estudios superiores; tesis.
Dr. Fil. y Dr. C.—Tres años por lo menos de estudios superiores; tesis.

Gastos:

Cuota incidental en el colegio de ciencias, literatura y artes, y en los de educación, agricultura y selvicultura—	
Para los habitantes del país	$30
Para los de fuera	60
Escuela para graduados	30
Colegio de ingeniería	50
Escuela de minas y de química	55
Escuela de derecho	65
Colegio de farmacia—	
Curso de dos años	82
Curso de tres años	55
Escuela de medicina y colegio dental	150
Alimentación por semana	3–6
Alojamiento por mes	6–18
Gasto total por año	250–850

Facultad, 608.

Estudiantes, 4,155 en clases de colegio, 3,209 en clases anteriores al colegio, 1,628 en clases de extensión; total, 8,992.

Especialmente interesante para los estudiantes extranjeros.—Los estudios del colegio de agricultura se dividen en dos grupos: 1°, las clases que preparan al estudiante para la agricultura en general, y que incluyen educación agrícola, agronomía y manejo de granjas, lechería, cría de animales y horticultura; y 2°, las clases en determinados ramos de ciencia agrícola, que preparan al alumno para investigaciones científicas. En este segundo grupo se incluye la química agrícola, entomología, y la patología del terreno y de las plantas. Se exigen seis meses de práctica en granja antes de la graduación.

La universidad sostiene también escuelas de agricultura con cursos de tres años adaptados a las necesidades de mozos y mozas de granja que no hayan tenido preparación suficiente para el estudio de colegio. Se ofrecen allí clases de instrucción especial para la vida rural práctica y economía doméstica práctica.

El programa del colegio de selvicultura incluye cursos en selvicultura general, dendrología agrimensura; protección, administración y producción de las selvas; en clasificación y manufactura de la madera y conservación de los bosques. Las estaciones forestales para experimentos en Cloquet, donde posee el estado 2,700 acres de terreno, y en Itaska, procuran amplias facilidades para labor práctica y de investigación.

La escuela de medicina y la escuela dental ofrecen cursos completos y figuran en primer rango entre las escuelas similares de la nación.

Los departamentos de geología y química facilitan clases de rango excepcional en esta materia.

ST. LOUIS UNIVERSITY, St. Louis, Missouri, ciudad de 723,347 habitantes. Institución fundada en 1818.

Colegio de Artes y Ciencias, para alumnos no graduados.
  Admisión: Graduación en high-school calificada.
    Para el grado de B. A., examen en filosofía, física, química, griego, latín, inglés, matemáticas e historia.
    Para el grado de B. C., examen en filosofía, química, física, biología, matemáticas, historia, inglés y cualquier otro idioma moderno.
  Grados: B. A. y B. C.—Cursos de cuatro años.
Escuela de Medicina.
  Admisión: Un año de estudio de colegio, incluyendo física, biología, química y un idioma moderno, después de haber terminado el curso regular de cuatro años de high-school.
  Grado: Dr. Med.—Curso de cuatro años.
Escuela Dental (St. Louis Dental College).
  Admisión: Graduación en high-school calificada.
  Grado: Dr. C. D.—Curso de tres años.
Instituto de Derecho.
  Admisión: Graduación en high-school calificada.
  Grados:
    B. L.—Tres años de curso diurno; o cuatro años de curso nocturno.
    M. L.—Un año de estudios superiores al grado de bachiller en leyes; tesis.
Escuela de Comercio y de Finanzas.
    Admisión: Graduación en high-school calificada.
    Grado: B. C. Com.—Curso de tres años; tesis. Se otorgan certificados de idoneidad a los estudiantes que lleven a cabo la cantidad de estudios requerida y que no sean candidatos para el grado.
Escuela de Teología (Católica).
Escuela de Filosofía y Ciencias.
Gastos:

Instrucción—	
Colegio de artes y ciencias	$75
Escuela de medicina	150
Instituto de derecho, curso diurno	100
Instituto de derecho, curso nocturno	80
Escuela dental	150
Escuela de comercio y de finanzas	80
Alojamiento y alimentación	128–190
Gasto total por año	300–525

Facultad, 211.
Estudiantes, 1,037, de los cuales 26 son extranjeros.

UNIVERSITY OF MISSOURI, Columbia, Missouri, ciudad de 12,000 habitantes. Institución concesionaria, mixta, fundada en 1839.

Colegio de Artes y Ciencias, para estudiantes no graduados.
  Admisión: 15 unidades, 6 prescritas: 3 inglés, 1 matemáticas, 2 en un solo idioma extranjero.
  Grado: B. A.—Curso de cuatro años.
Colegio de Agricultura.
  Admisión: 15 unidades, 4 prescritas; 3 inglés, 1 álgebra.
  Grados:
    B. C. en agricultura—Curso de cuatro años. Se dictan dos cursos diferentes, uno para hombres y otro para mujeres.
    M. Selv.—Curso de cinco años en selvicultura. A la terminación del cuarto año se otorga el grado de bachiller de ciencias en selvicultura.
Escuela de Pedagogía.
  Admisión: Dos años de estudios en el colegio de artes y ciencias, o su equivalente.
  Grados: B. C. en pedagogía—Curso de dos años. Se otorgan también certificados de maestro.
Escuela de Derecho.
  Admisión: Dos años de estudios de colegio.
  Grado: B. L.—Curso de tres años.
Escuela de Medicina.
  Admisión: Dos años de estudios de colegio. La labor comprende solamente los dos primeros años del curso de medicina. A su terminación se otorga un diploma.
Escuela de Ingeniería.
  Admisión: Dos años de estudios de colegio.
  Grados:
    I. Civ.—Curso de tres años.
    I. Eléc.—Curso de tres años.
    I. Mec.—Curso de tres años.
    I. Q.—Curso de tres años.
Escuela de Minas y Metalurgia.
  Admisión: 15 unidades, como en el colegio de artes y ciencias.
  Cursos de cuatro años para alumnos no graduados.

	Grados.
Ingeniería de minas	B. C. en ingeniería de minas.
Metalurgia	B. C. en metalurgia.
Ingeniería civil	B. C. en ingeniería civil.
Ciencias generales	B. C. en ciencias generales.

  Cursos para graduados—Un año de estudios superiores y tesis.
    Admisión: Grado de bachiller en el ramo apetecido.
      Ingeniería de minas; grado, I. M.
      Metalurgia; grado, I. Met. Los estudiantes que hubieren optado el grado de bachiller en ingeniería civil, eléctrica o mecánica pueden recibir el grado de ingeniero de minas con dos años de estudios superiores y tesis.
Escuela de Periodismo.
  Admisión: Dos años de estudios de colegio.
  Grado: B. Per.—Curso de dos años.
Escuela de Comercio.
  Admisión: Dos años de estudios de colegio.
  Grado: Bachiller de ciencias en comercio.—Curso de dos años.
Escuela para Graduados.
  Admisión: Grado de bachiller en colegio calificado.
  Grados:
    M. A.—Un año de estudios superiores; tesis.
    Dr. en Fil.—Tres años de estudios superiores; tesis.

Gastos:

Instrucción, libre para los habitantes de Missouri. Para los de fuera, excepto en la escuela para graduados	$20.00
Alimentación en la universidad, por semana	2.75
Alojamiento en los dormitorios de la universidad, por año	20.00–35.00
Alojamiento y alimentación fuera de la universidad, por semana	4.00–6.00
Gasto total por año	300.00

Para mujeres, la proporción es cerca de $75 más.

Facultad, 295.

Estudiantes, 3,826, de los cuales 24 son extranjeros.

Especialmente interesante para los estudiantes extranjeros.—El colegio de agricultura ofrece un programa completo para la instrucción fundamental en agricultura general y para estudios especiales en cría de animales, química agrícola, lechería, productos agrícolas, selvicultura, horticultura y botánica, abonos y medicina veterinaria.

En conexión con el quinto año de selvicultura se ofrece en la región de Ozark, un bosque de 50,000 acres que procura amplias facilidades para labor práctica y experimental.

La escuela de periodismo dicta cursos numerosos que incluyen la historia y principios del periodismo, el periodismo comparado, reportajes, crónica y editoriales, corrección de pruebas, ley de imprenta, arte ilustrativo, periodismo agrícola, administración de empresas periodísticas y avisos.

La escuela de minas en Rolla está en el radio donde se encuentra el plomo, cinc y hierro, presentando así brillante oportunidad de observar los diversos procesos de minería y fundición.

WASHINGTON UNIVERSITY, Saint Louis, Missouri, ciudad de 723,347 habitantes. Institución fundada en 1857; mixta, excepto en las escuelas dental y de medicina.

Departamento de Artes y Ciencias.

El Colegio (para estudios anteriores a los grados):

Admisión: 15 unidades, 12½ prescritas: 3 inglés, 5 idiomas, 1 historia, 2½ matemáticas, 1 ciencias. Para cursos de graduación: Grado de bachiller en colegio calificado.

Grados:

B. A.—Curso de cuatro años anterior a la graduación.

M. A.—Un año de estudio posterior a la graduación.

Dr. Fil.—Tres años de estudio posterior a la graduación; tesis.

Escuelas de Ingeniería y Arquitectura.

Admisión, para cursos anteriores a los grados: 15 unidades, 10 prescritas: 3 inglés, 2 idiomas, 1 historia, 3 matemáticas, 1 física o química.

Para cursos de graduación: Grado de bachiller en colegio calificado.

Grados:

B. C. en ingeniería civil, mecánica, eléctrica o química, o en arquitectura.—Cursos de cuatro años anteriores a la graduación.

Ingeniero civil, mecánico, eléctrico o químico.—Se confiere a los graduados de la universidad después de tres años por lo menos de labor profesional, uno de los cuales haya transcurrido en un puesto de responsabilidad, y a la presentación de una tesis.

M. C. en Arq.—Un año de residencia y de estudio posterior a la graduación; tesis.

Escuela de Derecho (St. Louis Law School).

Admisión: Un año de estudio de colegio.

Grado: B. L.—Curso de tres años.

Escuela de Medicina.
Admisión: Dos años de estudio de colegio, incluyendo inglés, alemán, física, química y biología.
Grado: Dr. Med.—Curso de cuatro años.
Escuela Dental.
Admisión: Graduación en escuela secundaria calificada.
Grado: Dr. Cir. D.—Curso de tres años.
Gastos:

Instrucción—	
Artes y ciencias (para no graduados), Escuela dental y de medicina	$150
Cursos para graduados	25
Escuela de derecho	100
Alojamiento (dormitorios de la universidad)	40-80

Facultad, 210.
Estudiantes, 1,800, de los cuales 6 son forasteros.

Especialmente interesante para los estudiantes extranjeros.—La universidad ha instalado recientemente un grupo de edificios modernos dedicados por entero a satisfacer las necesidades de la escuela de medicina, que se encuentra provista de magníficos salones de lectura, bibliotecas, museos y laboratorios. Los numerosos hospitales de la ciudad procuran amplias facilidades clínicas y todos los años se ofrecen allí puestos de internos a los miembros de las clases para graduados. El curso se divide en tres períodos generales: primero, el estudio de ciencias fundamentales como la anatomía, biología, química, fisiología y bacteriología; segundo, un período dedicado especialmente a labor clínica; y finalmente,en la última parte del curso no hay programa determinado, pero se supone que el alumno tratará de adquirir por sí mismo conocimientos más amplios en la materia en que se halle particularmente interesado.

La universidad sostiene una escuela de bellas artes que ofrece instrucción en pintura, dibujo, escultura y artes aplicadas.

La escuela de botánica Henry Shaw, que funciona en relación con el Jardín Botánico Missouri, ofrece amplias facilidades para estudios de investigación en este ramo.

La escuela de economía social procura instrucción para obras sociales y de caridad y tiene ventajas incomparables para estudios originales de investigación.

UNIVERSITY OF NEBRASKA, Lincoln, Nebraska, ciudad de 45,258 habitantes. Institución concesionaria, fundada en 1869.

Colegio de Artes liberales, para estudiantes no graduados.
Admisión: 30 puntos,[1] 18 prescritos: 4 inglés, 2 historia, 6 idiomas, 2 ciencias y 4 matemáticas.
Grados: B. A. y B. C.—Cursos de cuatro años.
Colegio de Pedagogía.
Admisión: Dos años de estudio de colegio.
Grados: El curso de pedagogía es de dos años. A su terminación de manera satisfactoria se otorga el bachillerato por el colegio perteneciente a la universidad en la cual el estudiante haya seguido sus dos años de estudio preparatorio.

El "Diploma del colegio de pedagogía," indicando las materias que el candidato se encuentra apto para enseñar, se otorga después de la graduación.

Certificado de la Universidad como Pedagogo.—Dos años de estudio en el colegio de pedagogía. Se exige como requisito previo el grado de bachiller en la universidad, debiendo además demostrar el estudiante excepcional habilidad escolástica y aptitudes para la enseñanza.

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[1] Dos puntos equivalen a una unidad establecida.

Colegio de Ingeniería.
Admisión: 30 puntos, como en el colegio de artes y ciencias.
Grados:
B. C. en Arq.—Curso de cuatro años en arquitectura.
B. C. en I. Arq.—Curso de cuatro años en ingeniería arquitectónica.
B. C. en I. Agr.—Curso de cuatro años en ingeniería agrícola.
B. C. en I. Civ.—Curso de cuatro años en ingeniería civil.
B. C. en I. Eléc.—Curso de cuatro años en ingeniería eléctrica.
B. C. en I. Mec.—Curso de cuatro años en ingeniería mecánica.
Conferidos por el colegio para graduados—
M. C. en ingeniería agrícola, civil, eléctrica o mecánica. Un año de estudio superior a los grados; tesis.
Ingeniero Agr., Civ., Elec. o Mec.—Un año de estudio superior y tesis, para los graduados en la universidad que tuvieren por lo menos cinco años de permanencia, que hubieren recibido el grado de bachiller y desempeñado labor profesional.
Dr. Fil.—Tres años de estudio posterior a la graduación en ingeniería; tesis.

Colegio de Agricultura.
Admisión: 30 puntos, como en el colegio de artes y ciencias.
Grados:
B. C. en Agr.—Curso de cuatro años en agricultura.
B. C. en Selv.—Curso de cuatro años en selvicultura.
B. C. en economía doméstica—Curso de cuatro años en economía doméstica.
M. Selv.—Curso de cinco años en selvicultura y un año de práctica.

Colegio para Graduados.
Admisión: Grado de bachiller en colegio calificado.
Grados:
M. A.—Un año de estudio superior a la graduación; tesis.
Dr. Fil.—Tres años de estudio superior a la graduación; tesis.
Se otorga el diploma de pedagogo graduado por estudios superiores en educación.

Colegio de Derecho.
Admisión; Un año de estudio de colegio.
Grado: B. L.—Curso de tres años.

Colegio de Medicina (situado en Omaha).
Admisión: Dos años de estudio de colegio, incluyendo química, física, alemán y zoología.
Grado: Dr. Med.—Curso de cuatro años.

Escuela de Farmacia.
Admisión: 30 puntos, como en el colegio de artes y ciencias.
Grados:
Farmacéutico—Curso de dos años.
Q. Farm.—Curso de tres años.
B. C.—Curso de cuatro años.

Escuela de Bellas Artes.
Admisión: 30 puntos, como en el colegio de artes y ciencias.
Grado: B. A.—Curso de cuatro años en dibujo, pintura o arte dramático.

Escuela de Comercio.
Admisión: 30 puntos, como en el colegio de artes y ciencias.
Grado: B. A.—Curso de cuatro años.

Gastos:
Instrucción—Colegio de pedagogía, high-school, Colegios de derecho, de medicina y de farmacia, de $13.50 a $65 el semestre.
Alimentación, de $3.50 a $5 por semana.
Alojamiento, de $5 a $10 por mes.
Gasto anual mínimo, $300.

Facultad, 251.
Estudiantes, 4,316, de los cuales 14 son extranjeros.

Especialmente interesante para los estudiantes extranjeros.—El objeto del colegio de pedagogía se dirige particularmente a preparar mejores maestros para las escuelas secundarias y la labor departamental. Sostiene una excelente high-school, y además las escuelas de toda la ciudad procuran ancho campo para el estudio de los problemas relacionados con la administración y enseñanza, así como para labor práctica y de observación.

DARTMOUTH COLLEGE, Hanover, New Hampshire, ciudad de 1,300 habitantes, fuera de los alumnos, a cuatro millas al norte del ferrocarril central en el cruce del río White, Vermont. Institución fundada en 1769.

Colegio Dartmouth. Departamento de artes y ciencias para estudiantes no graduados
Admisión: 14 unidades.
Para el grado de B. A., 12½ prescritas: 3 inglés, 1 historia, 2½ matemáticas, 4 latín y 2 idiomas.
Para el grado de B. C., 10½–11 prescritas: 3 inglés, 1 historia, 2½ matemáticas 3–4 idiomas modernos, 1 ciencias.
Curso de estudios, cuatro años. Se requiere que el alumno preste especial atención a cualquiera de las materias contenidas en uno de los siguientes grupos 1°, literatura y romance; 2°, matemáticas y ciencias físicas y naturales; 3°, historia y ciencias sociales; y que complete, además, cierta labor determinada en cada uno de los otros grupos.
Grados:
B. A. y B. C.
M. A. y M. C.—Un año de estudios superiores a la graduación; tesis.
Escuela de Verano (mixta).
Ofrece sesiones durante seis semanas de la temporada de verano, siguiendo los cursos ordinarios de colegio, a todos los estudiantes y maestros que deseen aprovechar parte de las vacaciones para sus estudios.
Escuela de Medicina.
Admisión: Dos años de estudio de colegio. La escuela de medicina ofrece solamente la mitad del curso de cuatro años.
Escuela Thayer de Ingeniería Civil.
Admisión: Grado de bachiller en colegio calificado y examen.
Grado: I. Civ.—Dos años de estudio superior a la graduación; tesis.
Escuela Amos Tuck de Administración y Finanzas.
Admisión: Tres años de estudio de colegio.
Grado: M. C. Com.—Dos años de estudios superiores; tesis.
Gastos:

Instrucción	$140
Alimentación, por semana	3.50-6
Alojamiento	45-150
Gasto total, por año	337-600

Administración y facultad, 126. (Facultad de la escuela de verano, 21; estudiantes, 228.)
Estudiantes, 1,391, de los cuales 6 son extranjeros.

Particularmente interesante para los estudiantes extranjeros.—El objeto de la escuela Tuck es preparar a sus alumnos ya sea para el campo de los negocios en general, o para cualquier ramo especial que deseen explotar. Ofrece instrucción en contaduría, francés, alemán y español comercial, estadística, leyes, organización y administración comercial, organización y administración financiera, comercio e industria, labor bancaria y facilidades de transporte. Los estudiantes que presenten certificado de estudios en colegio calificado, pueden recibir el grado de bachiller otorgado por el colegio Dartmouth, o por su propio colegio por medio de arreglo especial.

Los estudiantes del colegio Dartmouth pueden tomar como último año el primero del curso en las escuelas para graduados, aligerando así el período del estudio para los grados.

PRINCETON UNIVERSITY, Princeton, Nueva Jersey, ciudad de 5,000 habitantes. Institución fundada en 1746.

Departamento para alumnos no graduados.
Admisión: Dos métodos.
1°. Examen en todas las materias.
Para el curso de B. A.—Griego, latín, inglés, matemáticas.
Para el grado de B. C. o B. Lit., se requiere cualquier idioma moderno en lugar del griego.
Para el grado de I. Civ. se requiere inglés, latín, uno o dos idiomas modernos, matemáticas y ciencias.

Además de las materias prescritas, los candidatos para los tres cursos deben ofrecer clases voluntarias que sumen más o menos la cuarta parte de la labor preparatoria total.

2°. Para candidatos de reconocida habilidad, certificado de escuela secundaria y examen en cuatro materias diversas.
Para los candidatos al grado de B. A.—Matemáticas, inglés, latín y griego.
Para los candidatos al grado de B. C. o B. Lit:—Iguales requisitos a los especificados arriba, con la diferencia de que se substituye al griego un idioma moderno.
Los candidatos para el grado de I. Civ. no se admiten por este método.

Grados:
B. A.—Cuatro años. Se confiere este grado a todos aquellos que ofrecen griego en su admisión además de llenar todos los requisitos clásicos.
B. Lit.—Cuatro años. Se confiere este grado a aquellos que no ofrecen griego, pero se dedican a cualquier estudio especial en los departamentos de filosofía, literatura, política o humanidades.
B. C.—Cuatro años. Se confiere este grado a aquellos que no ofrecen griego, pero se dedican a cualquier estudio especial en los departamentos de matemáticas o de ciencias.
I. Civ.—Cuatro años de estudio técnico. Los alumnos que hubieren optado el grado de bachiller y seleccionado clases adecuadas durante el curso anterior a la graduación, pueden prepararse para este grado con dos años de labor en materias profesionales.

Escuela de Ingeniería Eléctrica.
Admisión: Primer grado en colegio acreditado o estudios equivalentes en matemáticas física y química.
Grado: I. Eléc.—Después de dos años de curso para graduados.

Escuela para Graduados.
Admisión: Grado de bachiller en colegio calificado.
Grados:
M. A.—Un año de estudio superior a la graduación.
Dr. Fil.—Dos años por lo menos de estudio superior a los grados. Los requisitos para este grado rara vez pueden completarse en menos de tres años; tesis.

Gastos:

Instrucción—	
Para alumnos no graduados y de ingeniería eléctrica	$175
Para graduados:	
Estudiantes que signen todo el curso completo, por año	30
Estudiantes que signen parte del curso, por año	15
Alimentación, por semana	3-8
Alojamiento (incluyendo luz y calefacción)	52–256
Gasto total por año (para no graduados)	384–768
Gasto total por año (para graduados)	330–480

Facultad, 207.
Estudiantes, 1,643, de los cuales 32 son forasteros.

Especialmente interesante para los estudiantes extranjeros.—Para la admisión en el departamento de alumnos no graduados, pueden ofrecer los estudiantes asiáticos como substituto del latín, conocimientos equivalentes en árabe, chino, indo o sánscrito.

El colegio para residencia de graduados, establecido en 1913, constituye uno de los más espléndidos grupos de edificios universitarios que se encuentran en el país, dedicados a los alumnos de este rango. Liberal dotación y cuantioso fondo escolar permiten a Princeton ofrecer a sus candidatos oportunidades excepcionales para el curso de graduación en artes y ciencias.

STEVENS INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY, Hoboken, Nueva Jersey, ciudad de 73,884 habitantes. Instituto fundado en 1871.

Admisión: 14½ unidades, 8½ prescritas: 3 inglés, 3½ matemáticas, 2 ciencias.
Curso para estudiantes no graduados, cuatro años.
Ingeniería mecánica; grado I. Mec.
Gastos:

Instrucción, anualmente	$225
Alimentación, por semana	5–8
Alojamiento, por semana	2–4
Gasto total por año	525–685

Facultad, 34.
Estudiantes, 324, de los cuales 5 son forasteros.

Especialmente interesante para los estudiantes extranjeros.—El instituto Stevens ofrece un sólo curso para optar el grado de ingeniero mecánico, y su objeto es procurar tan amplia instrucción como sea posible en este ramo. La importancia del lado práctico de este estudio se hace notar durante todo el curso, efectuando las clases numerosas excursiones científicas bajo la dirección de los maestros.

COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY, Nueva York, N. Y., ciudad de 5,198,888 habitantes. Institución fundada en 1871.

Colegio Columbia, para hombres.
Colegio Barnard, para mujeres. Departamento de artes y ciencias para estudiantes no graduados.
Admisión: 14½ unidades, 9½ prescritas: 3 inglés, 2½ matemáticas, 4 latín. Los candidatos para el grado de B. C. pueden substituir dos unidades de ciencias y dos de estudios medios o superiores por el latín. Para admisión al colegio Barnard se exigen 3 unidades de idiomas modernos a las que no puedan ofrecer griego elemental. Los candidatos del curso de periodismo deben ofrecer 2 unidades de historia y 4 por lo menos de idionas. Las matemáticas no están prescritas.
Grados:
B. A. y B. C.—Cursos de cuatro años.
Facultades para graduados: Filosofía, ciencias políticas, y ciencias puras.
Admisión: Grado de bachiller en colegio calificado.
Grados:
M. A.—Un año de estudio posterior a la graduación.
Dr. Fil.—Dos años de estudio posterior a la graduación.
Escuela de Derecho.
Admisión: Tres años de estudio de colegio.
Grados:
B. L.—Curso de tres años.
M. L.—Un año de estudio posterior al grado de bachiller, bajo la dirección del decano de las facultades de derecho, ciencias políticas, filosofía y ciencias puras.

Colegio de Médicos y Cirujanos.

Admisión: Dos años de estudio de colegio y certificado de estudiante de medicina firmado por la junta administrativa de la universidad del estado de Nueva York. Este certificado se otorga sobre la evidencia de labor satisfactoria de dos años por lo menos en algún colegio o escuela científica calificada, o labor equivalente, incluyendo ambas un año de física, biología, química inorgánica y un idioma moderno. Los extranjeros presentarán un examen especial de inglés.

Grado: Dr. Med.—Curso de cuatro años.

Escuelas de Minas, de Ingeniería y de Química.

Admisión: Tres años de estudio en colegio o escuela científica calificada.

Grados: I. M., I. Met., I, Civ., I. Elec., I. Mec., Q. e I. Q.—Cuatro años de estudios.

Escuela de Arquitectura.

Admisión: Dos años de estudio de colegio.

Grado: B. Arq.—Curso de cuatro años.

Colegio de Farmacia.

Curso de colegio.

Admisión: Certificado de estudiante de farmacia otorgado por el Departamento de Educación del estado a la prueba de la terminación de un año de labor en escuela secundaria calificada.

Grado: Farmacéutico graduado.—Curso de dos años.

Curso de universidad.

Admisión: Graduación en escuela secundaria.

Grado: Q. Farm.—Curso de tres años.

Curso para graduados.

Admisión: Q. Farm.

Grados:

B. C. Farm.—Un año de estudio posterior a la graduación.

Dr. Farm.—Tres años de estudio superior a la graduación.

Escuela de Periodismo.

Admisión: 14½ unidades, como en el colegio Columbia.

Grado: B. Lit.—Curso de cuatro años.

Colegio de Pedagogía.

Escuela de Artes Prácticas.

Admisión: 14½ unidades, 7 prescritas: 3 inglés, 2 matemáticas y ciencias, 2 idiomas e historia.

Grados:

B. C. en artes prácticas.—Curso de cuatro años, insistiendo sobre la tecnología de las bellas artes, las artes del hogar, y artes industriales, música, educación física y ciencias prácticas.

B. C. en educación.—Curso de cuatro años, insistiendo sobre la instrucción en bellas artes, artes del hogar y artes industriales, música, educación física, crianza de los niños y salubridad.

M. A.—Un año de estudio superior a la graduación.

Dr. Fil.[1]—Dos años de estudios superiores; tesis.

Escuela de Educación.

Admisión: Grado de bachiller en colegio calificado.

Grados:

M. A.—Un año de estudios.

Dr. Fil.—Dos años por lo menos de estudios superiores; tesis. Además, se otorgan diplomas a todos aquellos que demuestren especial habilidad profesional en el ramo de educación a que piensen dedicarse.

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[1] Aun cuando se concede el grado de doctor en filosofía con dos años de estudios superiores, rara vez es osible cumplir en tan poco tiempo con los requisitos que el grado exige.

Gastos:

Instrucción.—En el colegio Barnard y la escuela de derecho la enseñanza tiene precio fijo. En las demás escuelas y colegios de la universidad depende del número de clases que se tomen.

En el colegio Columbia (término medio)	$186
Colegio Barnard	150
Escuela de derecho	180
Colegio de médicos y cirujanos (término medio)	250
Escuelas de minas, ingeniería y química (término medio)	250
Escuela de arquitectura (término medio)	250
Escuela de periodismo (término medio)	204
Colegio de farmacia (termino medio)	145
Colegio de pedagogía (termino medio)	186
Alimentación, en los refectorios de la universidad	160–225
Alojamiento, en los dormitorios de la universidad	105–190
Gasto total por año	545–875

Facultad, 888.

Estudiantes, 7,322 durante el año escolar, y 5,590 durante la temporada de verano, incluyendo 1,048 matriculados en ambas sesiones. Del total, 191 son extranjeros.

Especialmente interesante para los estudiantes extranjeros.—La escuela de educación del Colegio de Pedagogía ofrece a los estudiantes de grados superiores cursos extensivos en la historia y la filosofía de la educación, lo mismo que en psicología y sociología, en la teoría y la práctica de la administración educadora, inspección y enseñanza de las clases. La escuela Horace Mann y la escuela Speyer, que incluyen kindergarten, escuela elemental y secundaria, y clases aproximadas, están sostenidas por el colegio y procuran facilidades excepcionales para la labor práctica de la enseñanza y para el estudio de los problemas de educación. Existen igualmente arreglos para el estudio y observación de la enseñanza en las escuelas públicas de Nueva York.

Los numerosos hospitales de la ciudad con los cuales mantiene relaciones la universidad, ofrecen a los estudiantes del colegio de médicos y cirujanos ocasiones incomparables para el estudio y labor clínica y de observación.

La escuela de derecho es una de las mejores de su clase en todo el país.

La escuela de periodismo se propone "formar mejores periodistas, quienes escribirán mejores periódicos que serán más útiles para el público." Establecida en 1912, ocupa ya lugar importante entre todas las demás escuelas de esta especie.

El colegio de farmacia de la ciudad de Nueva York se afilió a la universidad Columbia en 1904. Está admirablemente equipado y figura entre las mejores escuelas de farmacia de los Estados Unidos.

Las facultades para graduados en ciencias políticas, filosofía y ciencias exactas, que ofrecen estudios superiores para los grados de M. A. y Dr. Fil.[1] en materias científicas, profesionales y liberales, tienen la matrícula más numerosa de todos los departamentos de la universidad.

La escuela de verano ofrece gran número de cursos diferentes de los cuales pueden aprovechar con ventaja los estudiantes extranjeros que frecuenten sus sesiones.

La situación de la universidad Columbia en la ciudad más populosa de América, su liberal dotación, sus numerosas y cuantiosas becas, y especialmente su alta norma de estudios en todos sus departamentos, se han combinado para atraer a sus aulas gran número de estudiantes extranjeros.

Los siguientes departamentos son dignos de especial mención tanto por la competencia de sus profesores como por la amplitud de los cursos que se ofrecen: Matemáticas, física, biología, botánica, geología, química, lenguas orientales y semíticas, lenguas y literatura germánica, inglés, historia, economía y ciencias políticas, antropología, fisiología y psicología.

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[1] Aun cuando se otorga el título de Doctor en Filosofía a la terminación de dos años de estudio posterior a la graduación, es imposible generalmente llenar todos los requisitos en período menor de tres años.

CORNELL UNIVERSITY, Ithaca, Nueva York, ciudad de 14,000 habitantes. Institución concesionaria, mixta, fundada en 1865.

Colegio de Artes y Ciencias, para estudiantes no graduados.

Admisión: 15 unidades, 11 prescritas.

Para el grado de B. A., 3 inglés, 5 en dos idiomas diversos, 1 historia, 1 historia y 2 matemáticas. Para el grado de B. Q., 3 inglés, 3 en un sólo idioma extranjero, 1 historia y 4 matemáticas.

Grados:

B. A.—Curso de cuatro años.

B. Q.—Curso de cuatro años con estudio especial de química.

Colegio de Jurisprudencia.

Admisión: 15 unidades, 9 prescritas: 3 inglés, 1 historia, 2 matemáticas, 3 en un solo idioma extranjero.

Grado: B. L.—Curso de cuatro años. El primer año es casi enteramente preparatorio y dedicado a las clases del colegio de artes y ciencias. Los estudiantes que hubieren completado un año de labor de colegio antes de su admisión, pueden comenzar inmediatamente las clases profesionales y recibir el grado en tres años.

Colegio de Agricultura del Estado de Nueva York.

Admisión: 15 unidades: 9 prescritas: 3 inglés, 3 de un idioma extranjero, 1 historia y 2 matemáticas.

Grado: B. C.—Curso de cuatro años.

Colegio de Veterinaria del Estado de Nueva York.

Admisión: 15 unidades, 9 prescritas: 3 inglés, 3 de un idioma extranjero, 1 historia y 2 matemáticas.

Grado: Dr. Med. Vet.—Curso de tres años.

Colegio de Arquitectura.

Admisión: 15 unidades, 12 prescritas: 3 inglés, 3 de un idioma extranjero, 1 historia, 1 física y 4 matemáticas.

Grado: B. Arq.—Curso de cuatro años. Se recomienda que dedique el alumno, siempre que sea posible, cinco y aún seis años al estudio, con el objeto de que pueda adquirir mayor educación y cultura, eligiendo algunas otras clases fuera de las profesionales.

Colegio de Ingeniería Civil.

Admisión: 15 unidades, 11 prescritas: 3 inglés, 3 de un idioma extranjero, 1 historia, 4 matemáticas.

Grado: I. Civ.—Curso de cuatro años. Se ha combinado otro curso de cinco años para aquellos que deseen mayor extensión de estudios. Para la admisión a este curso se requieren 9 unidades.

Colegio Sibley de Ingeniería y Artes Mecánicas.

Admisión: 15 unidades, 11 prescritas: 3 inglés, 3 de un idioma extranjero, 4 matemáticas, 1 historia.

Grado: I. Mec.—Curso de cuatro años. Se ha combinado también un curso de cinco años que procura instrucción más amplia y para el cual se prescriben 9 unidades.

Colegio de Medicina, en la ciudad de Nueva York.

Admisión: Grado de bachiller en colegio calificado.

Grado: Dr. Med.—Curso de cuatro años. El primer año de estudios se ofrece también en Ithaca.

Escuela para Graduados.

Admisión: Grado de bachiller en colegio calificado.

Grados:

M. A., M. Arq., M. I. Civ., M. I. Mec., M. Selv., M. C. Agr. y Maestro en dibujo de perspectiva.—Un año de estudio posterior a la graduación; tesis.

Dr. Fil.—Tres años de estudio superior a la graduación; tesis.

Gastos:

Instrucción—

En medicina, arquitectura, ingeniería civil y en el colegio Sibley....	$150
Artes y ciencias, derecho y agricultura..............................	125
Veterinaria..	100

Para los residentes en el estado de Nueva York es gratuita la instrucción en los colegios de veterinaria y agricultura.

Los alumnos de la escuela para graduados pagan la misma cuota que se cobra en el colegio donde hubieren seguido la mayor parte de sus estudios.

Alojamiento y pensión, de $5 a $12 semanales.

Facultad, 750.

Estudiantes, 5,015, de los cuales 150 aproximadamente son extranjeros.

Especialmente interesante para los estudiantes extranjeros.—El colegio de agricultura está maravillosamente equipado. En el departamento de industria lechera se llevan a cabo experimentos en los laboratorios y talleres para el ensayo de la leche, estudio de las bacterias, elaboración de mantequilla, queso y manufactura de helados, la provisión de leche para el mercado y los utensilios mecánicos de lechería. Un curso de cinco años en selvicultura procura instrucción completa a los alumnos de agricultura general, a los futuros maestros y a todos aquellos que aspiren al conocimiento exacto del plan de selvicultura en la vida de la nación, así como a los estudiantes técnicos de otros ramos que deseen clases especiales en materia determinada, y a los estudiantes profesionales en selvicultura. Entre otras clases excelentes en el colegio de agricultura pueden mencionarse la agricultura general, crianza de aves y cuadrúpedos, pomología, horticultura, entomología y jardinería de perspectiva.

El colegio de veterinaria está muy bien equipado y provisto de facilidades clínicas. Se ofrecen clases para graduados, con oportunidad para estudios superiores y labor de investigación.

La situación de la escuela de medicina, en la ciudad de Nueva York con sus numerosos hospitales, procura facilidades clínicas casi incomparables. En el cuarto año se exige que los estudiantes dediquen gran parte de su tiempo a estudios prácticos como ayudantes clínicos en las diversas salas de los hospitales de Nueva York y Bellevue.

Se admite a los graduados a un examen final para obtener el diploma de licenciados del Colegio Real de Médicos de Londres y miembros del Colegio Real de Cirujanos de Inglaterra.

El colegio de ingeniería civil, el colegio Sibley de ingeniería y artes mecánicas y el colegio de arquitectura gozan de alta reputación y atraen muchos estudiantes extranjeros. En el colegio Sibley pueden hacer los alumnos estudios especiales en ingeniería mecánica, eléctrica o de minas.

NEW YORK UNIVERSITY, Nueva York, Nueva York, ciudad de 5,198,888 habitantes. Institución fundada en 1831.

Colegio de Artes y Ciencias puras.

Los alumnos se dividen en tres grupos para el ingreso: A, los preparados en latín algún otro idioma; B, los preparados en idiomas modernos y matemáticas superiores; C, los que ingresan al curso de un año preparatorio para el de medicina.

Admisión: 15 unidades.

Sección A.—11½ ó 12½ prescritas: 3 inglés, 4 latín, 2 ó 3 idiomas adicionales, 2½ matemáticas.

Sección B.—11½ prescritas: 3 inglés, 2 alemán, 2 francés, 3½ matemáticas, física o química.

Sección C.—Ninguna prescrita.

Grados: B. A. y B. C. en ciencias puras.—Curso de cuatro años.

Escuela de Ciencia Aplicada.

Admisión: 15 unidades, 10½ prescritas: 3 inglés, 3 idiomas, 3½ matemáticas, 1 física.

Grados:

B. C. en I. Civ.—Curso de cuatro años.

B. C. en I. Mec.—Curso de cuatro años.

B. C. en I. Q.—Curso de cuatro años.

I. Civ., I. Mec. e I. Q.—Un año de estudio superior a la graduación; tesis.

Colegio Washington Square. Este colegio, mixto, ofrece un curso combinado de cuatro años, dedicado a enseñanza general y vocacional. Se propone satisfacer las aspiraciones de maestros, abogados, doctores, ministros y otros estudiantes profesionales que deseen instrucción más vasta y el grado de bachiller, así como las de aquellos jóvenes que desean instrucción de colegio, encontrándose en la imposibilidad de asistir a otras clases que las dictadas en las tardes y en los sábados.

Las clases que este instituto ofrece tienen el mismo valor que las de los colegios calificados.

Admisión: 15 unidades, 5 prescritas: 3 inglés, 2 matemáticas. Para los candidatos al grado de B. A. cuatro unidades adicionales en idiomas clásicos.

Grados: B. A. y B. C.—128 puntos, que requieren ocho años aproximadamente.

Escuela para Graduados.

Admisión: Grado de bachiller en colegio calificado.

Grados:

M. A. y M. C.—Un año por lo menos de estudio posterior a los grados; tesis.

Dr. Fil. y Dr. C.—Tres años por lo menos de estudio posterior a los grados; tesis.

Escuela de Derecho.

Admisión: Graduación en high-school aprobada, o certificado de la junta de administración central.

Grados:

B. L.—Curso de tres años.

Dr. Jur. para los que han recibido el grado de bachiller en colegio calificado.—Curso de tres años.

M. L.—Un año de estudio posterior al grado de B. L.

Universidad y Colegio Médico del Hospital de Bellevue.

Admisión: Un año de estudio de colegio que haya incluído química, física y biología.

Grados:

Dr. Med.—Curso de cuatro años.

Dr. Sal. Pub.—Un año de estudio en salubridad pública después de haber recibido el grado de Dr. Med.

Escuelas de Comercio, Contabilidad y Finanzas; mixtas.

Admisión: Graduación en escuela secundaria aprobada o certificado de la junta administrativa.

Grados:

B. C. Com.—Tres años de estudio y dos años adicionales de práctica comercial.

M. C. Com.—Un año de estudio posterior al grado de bachiller en ciencia comercial; tesis.

Colegio de Veterinaria del Estado de Nueva York.

Admisión: Graduación en escuela secundaria aprobada.

Grado: Dr. C. Vet.—Curso de tres años.

Escuela de Pedagogía; mixta.

Admisión en el departamento para graduados: Grado de bachiller en colegio calificado

En el departamento para alumnos no graduados: graduación en escuela normal aprobada por el estado o escuela de educación de la ciudad; o a la terminación de dos años en colegio calificado.

Escuela de Pedagogía; mixta—Continúa.

Grados, departamento para graduados:

M. Ped.—Un año por lo menos de estudio posterior a la graduación y años adicionales de práctica en el profesorado.

Dr. Ped.—Dos años por lo menos de estudio posterior a la graduación y dos años adicionales de práctica en el profesorado; tesis.

Departamento para alumnos no graduados:

B. C. en Ped.—Tres años por lo menos de estudio posterior a la graduación en escuela normal.

Gastos:

Colegio de artes y ciencias puras y Escuela de ciencia aplicada	$125
Escuela de derecho, para el curso de bachiller en leyes o doctor en jurisprudencia	120
Escuela de derecho, para el curso de maestro en leyes	100
Escuela de medicina	200
Escuela de comercio, contabilidad y finanza (según la clase de estudios)	15–150
Colegio de veterinaria	100
Colegio Washington Square (según la clase de estudios):	
Por el curso de una hora	15
Por el curso de dos horas	25
Por el curso de tres horas	37
Escuela de pedagogía (según la clase de estudios):	
Por el curso de una hora	10
Por el curso de dos horas	20
Escuela para graduados (según la clase de estudios):	
Por el curso de una hora	15
Por el curso de dos horas	25

Facultad, 432.

Estudiantes, 5,981, de los cuales 56 son extranjeros.

Especialmente interesante para los estudiantes extranjeros.—La escuela de medicina posee cuatro edificios adyacentes, y numerosos hospitales en la ciudad ofrecen a sus alumnos valiosas facilidades clínicas. El curso de salubridad e higiene pública incluye el estudio e investigación de las medidas más conducentes para evitar la difusión de enfermedades contagiosas, de la forma en que están establecidas las instituciones para el cuidado de los enfermos, de la higiene de los niños y de los párvulos, de la inspección del abastecimiento de víveres, higiene e ingeniería de salubridad, bacteriología y química aplicadas, estadística vital, economía, administración y enfermedades de los animales. La ciudad provee extraordinarias facilidades para esta clase de labor.

La escuela de comercio, contabilidad y finanzas se estableció en 1900 y ofrece cursos completos de contabilidad, comercio, finanzas, gobierno y hacienda pública, leyes, inglés, español, francés y alemán. Su situación en un gran centro financiero y comercial como Nueva York ha demostrado tener alicientes para los estudiantes interesados en estas materias.

RENSSELAER POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE, Troy, Nueva York, ciudad de 77,382 habitantes. Fundada en 1824, es esta institución la más antigua de todas las escuelas independientes de ingeniería.

Admisión: 14 unidades, 10 prescritas: 3 matemáticas, 3 inglés, 2 idiomas, 1 ciencia, 1 historia.

Cursos de cuatro años para estudiantes no graduados:

	Grados.
Ingeniería civil	I. Civ.
Ingeniería mecánica	I. Mec.
Ingeniería eléctrica	I. Eléc.
Ingeniería química	I. Q.
Ciencias generales	B. C.

Cursos para graduados.

Grados:

M. I. Civ., M. I. Mec., M. I. Eléc., M. I. Q. y M. C.—Un año de estudio para los que hubieren recibido el grado de bachiller.

Dr. Fil., Dr. C. y Dr. I.—Tres años de estudio posterior a la graduación, dos de los cuales deben contarse de residencia en el instituto.

Gastos:

Instrucción para alumnos no graduados	$205
Instrucción para los graduados	150
Alojamiento y pensión, por semana	5-9
Gasto total por año	425–575

Facultad, 64.

Estudiantes, 646, de los cuales 45 son extranjeros.

Especialmente interesante para los estudiantes extranjeros.—El curso en ingeniería civil en los últimos dos años dedicados estrictamente a la educación profesional, incluye diseño, situación, construcción y superintendencia de obras públicas; diseño, construcción y administración de fábricas, factorías, ferrocarriles, etc.; diseño, y construcción de edificios, puentes, etc., diseño, construcción y manejo de varias clases de maquinaria y determinación de su capacidad; metalurgia, mineralogía y geología; determinación de latitud, longitud y espacio, revista de minas, ríos, lagos y puertos y determinación de su progreso.

Colegio McMicken de Artes liberales, para alumnos no graduados.

Admisión: 16 unidades, 9 prescritas: 3 inglés, 2 matemáticas, 1 historia, 3 idiomas (dos de estas unidades deben ser del mismo idioma).

Grado: B. A.—Curso de cuatro años.

Colegio de Pedagogía.

Admisión: Iguales requisitos a los del colegio de artes liberales.

Grado: B. C.—Curso de cuatro años.

Escuela de Graduados.

Admisión: Grado de bachiller en colegio calificado.

Grados:

M. A.—Un año de estudio con residencia en la escuela.

Dr. Fil.—Tres años de estudio posterior a la graduación; tesis.

Colegio de Ingeniería.

Admisión: 16 unidades, 6½ prescritas: 3 inglés, 2½ matemáticas, 1 historia.

Cursos teóricos de cuatro años:	Grados.
Ingeniería química	B. C. en I. Q.
Ingeniería civil	B. C. en I. Civ.
Ingeniería eléctrica	B. C. en I. Eléc.
Ingeniería mecánica	B. C. en I. Mec.

Curso cooperativo de cinco años:	
Ingeniería química	I. Q.
Ingeniería civil	I. Civ.
Ingeniería eléctrica	I. Eléc.
Ingeniería mecánica	I. Mec.
Ingeniería metalúrgica	I. Met.

Colegio de Medicina.

Admisión: Cuatro años de curso de high-school y dos años de colegio.

Grados: Dr. Med.—Curso de cuatro años. Un curso de seis años combinando el estudio de colegio y el curso de medicina da opción al título de B. C. y Dr. Med.

Colegio de Comercio.

Admisión: Lo mismo que en el colegio de artes liberales.

Grado: Bachiller en comercio.

Escuela de Artes del Hogar.

Admisión: Lo mismo quo en el colegio de artes liberales.

Grado: B. C.—Curso de tres años.

Gastos:

Instrucción—	
Cursos en la escuela para graduados, en la de artes liberales, colegio de pedagogía y de ingeniería	$75
Medicina	100
Alojamiento y alimentación, por semana	5–8
Gasto total por año	325–500

Especialmente interesante para los extranjeros.—El colegio de ingeniería ofrece dos cursos diferentes: un curso teórico de cuatro años semejante al que procuran las demás instituciones de ingeniería, y un curso cooperativo de cinco años en el cual dedican los estudiantes dos períodos alternativos semanales, una vez a la universidad y otra a labor práctica de ingeniería. En el curso cooperativo se enseña la práctica de ingeniería en algún taller o ferrocarril bajo las actuales condiciones de comercio, mientras la parte científica que gobierna la práctica se enseña en la universidad. Cada una de las clases se divide en dos secciones iguales, que reciben instrucción semanal alternativamente en la universidad y en las factorías y talleres. Cada semana se cambian las secciones, asistiendo a la universidad los estudiantes que estaban en las factorías y viceversa: sistema que rige durante todo el curso. El objeto de este curso es ofrecer no solamente enseñanza teórica sino también la práctica de la ingeniería. Los estudiantes del curso cooperativo reciben gajes por su labor en las fábricas de igual manera que los demás empleados.

El colegio de medicina goza facilidades especiales por sus conexiones con el hospital general de Cincinnati y sus sucursales, y con otros asilos e instituciones de la ciudad. Los estudiantes trabajan en estas instituciones en la misma forma que bajo el sistema cooperativo del colegio de ingeniería, pudiendo los graduados recibir emolumentos como internos por un año de servicio adicional. Hay algunos estudiantes que están adscritos a los hospitales en calidad de ayudantes durante los dos primeros años del curso y reciben manutención y $10 mensuales en compensación por sus servicios.

CASE SCHOOL OF APPLIED SCIENCE, Cleveland, Ohio, ciudad de 632,690 habitantes. Institución fundada en 1880.

Admisión: 15 unidades, 10 prescritas; 3 inglés; 3 matemáticas, 2 idiomas, 2 ciencias.

Cursos para alumnos no graduados. Cuatro años, con opción a un solo grado, B. C. Tesis.

Ingeniería civil, ingeniería mecánica, ingeniería eléctrica.

Ingeniería de minas. Incluye mineralogía y metalurgia.

Los tres primeros años son semejantes para todos los alumnos, pero en el cuarto año siguen estudios especiales en mineralogía o metalurgia.

Ingeniería química.

Física.

Cursos para graduados.

Admisión: Grado de bachiller en colegio calificado.

Grados: M, C.—Un año de estudio posterior a la graduación; tesis. Los grados de I. Civ., I. Mec., I. Eléc., I. M. e I. Q. se confieren a los graduados en la escuela del instituto que hubieren practicado labor profesional durante tres años en puestos de responsabilidad y que presenten una tesis. En casos excepcionales pueden conferirse a los graduados en otras instituciones siempre que hubieren optado en el instituto Case el grado de doctor.

Gastos:

Instrucción	$125
Alojamiento y alimentación, por semana	$5.50–6.50
Miscelánea	130–210
Gasto total por año	474–592

Facultad, 48.
Estudiantes, 549, de los cuales 6 son extranjeros.

Especialmente interesante para los estudiantes extranjeros.—Las clases de ingeniería mecánica, civil y eléctrica revisten particular interés. Durante el primer año el estudio es igual en todos los departamentos; y pasado éste se requiere que el alumno elija el ramo de ingeniería a que piensa dedicarse. Conforme avanzan los estudios el tema va siendo más técnico y ya en el último año se dedica todo el tiempo al estudio en el departamento especial de ingeniería que se hubiere elegido.

OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY, Columbus, Ohio, ciudad de 199,417 habitantes. Institución concesionaria, mixta, fundada en 1870.

Colegio de Agricultura.
  Admisión: 15 unidades, 8 prescritas: 2 inglés, 1 historia, 2 matemáticas, 1 ciencias, 2 idiomas. Para el curso de economía doméstica se prescriben dos unidades adicionales de idiomas y una de inglés.
  Grados, en cursos de cuatro años:
    B. C. en agricultura.
    B. C. en horticultura.
    B. C. en entomología.
    B. C. en selvicultura.
    B. C. en economía doméstica.
Colegio de Artes, Ciencias y Filosofía.
  Admisión: 15 unidades, 11 prescritas: 3 inglés, 1 historia, 2 matemáticas, 1 ciencias, 4 idiomas.
  Grado: B. A.—Curso de cuatro años.
Colegio de Educación.
  Admisión: 15 unidades, 11 prescritas: 3 inglés, 1 historia, 4 idiomas.
  Grado: B. C. en educación.—Curso de cuatro años.
Colegio de Ingeniería.
  Admisión: 15 unidades, 11 prescritas: 3 inglés, 3 matemáticas, 1 ciencias, 4 idiomas.
  Grados: B. Arq., B. I. Cer., B. I. Q., B. I. Civ., B. I. Eléc., B. I. Mec., B. I. M.—Cursos de cuatro años.
Colegio de Jurisprudencia.
  Admisión: Dos años de estudio en colegio calificado.
    Grados:
    B. L.—Curso de tres años.
    Dr. Jur.—Curso de tres años para los que hubieren optado el grado de bachiller en colegio calificado y completado 50 "horas" en el colegio de jurisprudencia.
Colegio de Farmacia.
  Admisión: Un año de estudio en high-school aprobada, para seguir el curso que otorga el certificado en farmacia. Para el curso de grados, 15 unidades, 8 prescritas: 2 inglés, 1 historia, 2 matemáticas, 1 ciencias y 2 idiomas.
    Curso de dos años.
  Grados: B. C. en Farm.—Curso de cuatro años. Certificado de farmacéutico—
Colegio de Medicina Veterinaria.
  Admisión: Graduación de 15 unidades en escuela secundaria calificada.
  Grado: Dr. Med. Vet.—Curso de cuatro años.
Colegio de Medicina.
  Admisión: Certificado de estudiante en medicina, otorgado a la terminación del curso de high-school y dos años de estudio de colegio.
  Grado: Dr. Med.—Curso de cuatro años.

Colegio Dental.
  Admisión: Graduación en escuela secundaria aprobada.
  Grado: Dr. C. D.—Curso de tres años.
Escuela para Graduados.
  Admisión: Grado de bachiller en colegio calificado.
  Grados:
    M. A. y M. C.—Un año de estudios superiores.
    I. Civ., I. Mec., I. Eléc., I. Cer., I. Q., M. Arq.—Cuatro años de experiencia profesional y tesis; o grado de M. C. en I. con dos años de experiencia y tesis; o un año de experiencia profesional, un año de ingeniería en la universidad y tesis.
    Dr. Fil.—Tres años de estudios superiores y tesis (disertación).

Gastos:

Instrucción, incluyendo cuotas incidentales:	
Colegio de jurisprudencia	$60.00
Colegio de medicina	150.00
Colegio dental	150.00
Colegio de medicina homeopática	125.00
Gastos incidentales en los demás colegios de la universidad	30.00
Alimentación, por semana	3.50
Alojamiento, por mes	8.00

Gasto total por año (con excepción de la escuela de medicina), de $386 a $400.

Facultad, 423.

Estudiantes, 4,935, de los cuales 43 son extranjeros.

Especialmente interesante para los estudiantes extranjeros.—La universidad goza de grandes facilidades para labor original y de investigación en selvicultura, administración de las selvas y arboricultura.

El curso de cuatro años en medicina veterinaria prepara a los alumnos para la práctica regular. El hospital de veterinaria, donde se llevan los animales de la ciudad y los distritos rurales circunvecinos, está perfectamente equipado. Se presta diariamente servicio clínico gratuito al cual asisten los estudiantes.

El departamento de agricultura química ofrece cursos generales y superiores de química agrícola, química insecticida y destructora de gérmenes nocivos, química de lechería, química de abonos, química de nutrición animal, inspección y análisis de los víveres y química del alimento y de la nutrición.

UNIVERSITY OF OREGON, Eugene, Oregon, ciudad de 12,000 habitantes. Institución mixta, fundada en 1872.

Colegio de Literatura, Ciencias y Artes, para alumnos no graduados.
  Admisión: 15 unidades, 7 prescritas: 3 inglés, 2 matemáticas, 1 historia, 1 ciencias
  Grados: B. A. y B. C.—Curso de cuatro años; tesis.
Escuela de Bellas Artes.
  Admisión: 15 unidades, como en el colegio de literatura, ciencias y artes.
  Grado: B. A.—Curso de cuatro años.
Escuela de Arquitectura.
  Admisión: 15 unidades, 8 prescritas: 3 inglés, 3 matemáticas, 1 historia, 1 ciencias.
  Grado: B. C.—Curso de cuatro años.
Escuela de Educación.
  Admisión: 15 unidades, como en el colegio de literatura, ciencias y artes.
  Grado: B. A.—Curso de cuatro años.
Escuela de Medicina (Portland, Oregón).
  Admisión: Un año de estudio de colegio que haya incluído física, química, histología y francés o alemán.
  Grado: Dr. Med.—Curso de cuatro años.

Escuela de Derecho.
Admisión: Dos años de estudio de colegio.
Grados: B. L. y Dr. Jur.—Cursos de tres años.
Escuela Nocturna de Derecho (Portland, Oregón).
Admisión: Graduación en escuela secundaria aprobada.
Grado: B. L.—Curso de tres años.
Escuela de Música.
Admisión: 15 unidades, como en colegio de literatura, ciencias y artes.
Grado: B. Mús.—Curso de cuatro años.
Escuela para Graduados.
Admisión: Grado de bachiller en el colegio calificado.
Grados: M. A. y M. C.—Un año de estudios superiores a la graduación, con residencia de un semestre por lo menos; tesis.
Gastos:

Instrucción—	
Escuela de música (según los estudios) sube hasta	$180
Escuela de derecho, primer año	60
Escuela de derecho, segundo y tercer año	75
Escuela de medicina	150
Enseñanza gratuita en los demás departamentos de la universidad.	
Alimentación en la universidad, por semana	3.75
Alojamiento en la universidad	30
Alojamiento y pensión fuera de la universidad, por mes	20 30
Gasto total por año	300-700

Facultad, 108.
Estudiantes, 1,146, de los cuales 11 son extranjeros.

Especialmente interesante para los extranjeros.—Las conferencias en la escuela de derecho tienen lugar en las noches, procurando la universidad tanto como es posible, poner a sus alumnos en contacto con las oficinas de jurisprudencia durante el día, para que encuentren allí la oportunidad de familiarizarse con las prácticas del foro y el detalle de los deberes profesionales.

BRYN MAWR COLLEGE, Bryn Mawr, Pennsylvania, ciudad de 5,000 habitantes, situada cerca de Filadelfia, ciudad de 1,631,956 habitantes. Institución para mujeres solamente, fundada en 1880.

Admisión en el departamento de alumnos no graduados: Examen en todas las materias; matemáticas, inglés, latín, historia, ciencias y dos de los tres idiomas siguientes: griego, francés y alemán.
Grado: B. A.—Curso de cuatro años.
Admisión en el departamento para graduados: Grado de bachiller en colegio calificado.
Grados:
M. A.—Un año de estudios superiores con opción a este título, sólo para los graduados en Bryn Mawr.
Dr. Fil. y M. A.—Tres años de estudios superiores; tesis.
Gastos:

Instrucción para estudiantes no graduados	$200
Instrucción para graduados	125
Alimentación para estudiantes no graduados	225
Alimentación para graduados	200
Alojamiento para estudiantes no graduados	100 160
Alojamiento para graduados	75
Gasto total para estudiantes no graduados, por año	510
Gasto total para graduados, por año	405

Facultad, 63.
Estudiantes, 472, de los cuales 16 son extranjeros.

Especialmente interesante para los alumnos extranjeros.—El colegio Bryn Mawr ofrece excelentes cursos de colegio, para mujeres únicamente. Los estudiantes no se dividen en las cuatro clases convencionales, ni hay tiempo señalado para llenar los requisitos para la graduación.

La escuela de educación ofrece cursos para graduados a todos aquellos que deseen estudiar educación durante uno, dos o tres años, entendiéndose que el candidato dedicará más o menos la mitad de su tiempo a los estudios generales de educación y el tiempo restante a la materia especial que se propone enseñar. En conexión con este departamento se mantiene una escuela modelo que recibe pupilos de diez años de edad y los prepara en siete años para la educación de colegio. Esta labor está a cargo de maestros expertos y procura excelente ocasión para la discusión y estudio de los métodos de enseñanza.

El colegio ofrece instrucción para graduados en todos sus departamentos. Además de 16 becas para graduados residentes en la localidad y para 20 escolares, hay 4 becas utilizables para graduados transeuntes. Doce becas de colegio que cubren el costo de la alimentación, estadía e instrucción ($405), se ofrecen en la escuela para graduados; 5 para estudiantes ingleses, 5 para alemanes, y 2 para franceses, exclusivamente mujeres.

LEHIGH UNIVERSITY, South Bethlehem, Pennsylvania, ciudad de 20,000 habitantes, a 57 millas de Filadelfia, ciudad de 1,631,956 habitantes, y a 86 millas de Nueva York, ciudad de 5,198,888 habitantes. Institución fundada en 1866.

Cursos para estudiantes no graduados.
Admisión:
Para el grado de B. A., 14½ unidades: 3 inglés, 7 idiomas, 2 historia, 2½ matemáticas.
Para el grado de B. C., 14 unidades, 8½ prescritas: 3 inglés, 2 idiomas, 1 historia, 2½ matemáticas.
Para cursos de ingeniería, 14 unidades, 10 prescritas: 3 inglés, 2 idiomas, 1 historia, 4 matemáticas.
Grados:
B. A.—Curso de cuatro años en artes y ciencias.
B. C.—Cursos de cuatro años: uno en que predominan ciencias químicas y biológicas; otro, especial en ciencias geológicas; el tercero, en que predominan ciencias físicas y matemáticas; y el cuarto, administración comercial.
I. Civ., I. Mec., I. Met., Eléc. Met., I. M., I. Eléc., B. C. Q. e I. Q.—Cursos de cuatro años en los diversos ramos que requiere el grado.
Cursos para graduados.
Admisión: Grado de bachiller en colegio calificado.
Grados: M. A. y M. C.—Un año de estudios superiores a la graduación.
Gastos:
Instrucción—

Ingeniería y electrometalurgia	$200
Cursos de química y bachiller en ciencias	150
Curso para el grado de bachiller en artes	100
Cursos para graduados	50
Alojamiento en los dormitorios de la universidad	65–81
Alimentación en los refectorios de la universidad, por mes	15
Gasto total al año, aproximadamente	600

Facultad, 72.
Estudiantes, 705, de los cuales 33 son extranjeros.

Especialmente interesante para los estudiantes extranjeros.—La universidad ofrece cursos excelentes en ingeniería civil, mecánica, eléctrica, metalúrgica, química y de minas, en electrometalurgia, química y geología. El curso de administración comercial incluye además de las materias generales, estudios en comercio, economía, historia industrial, contabilidad, leyes y hacienda pública, legislación, administración de ferrocarriles, finanzas, labor bancaria y valores y seguros.

PENNSYLVANIA STATE COLLEGE, State College, Pennsylvania, ciudad de 1,800 habitantes. Institución concesionaria, mixta, fundada en 1863.

Admisión a las escuelas de agricultura, ingeniería, minas, o ciencias naturales, 14 unidades, 11 prescritas: 3 inglés, 3 matemáticas, 2 idiomas, 2 ciencias, 1 historia. Para la escuela de artes liberales (excepto en el curso clásico) y la de economía doméstica, la unidad de matemáticas que incluye álgebra desde cuadrática y geometría del espacio, no está prescrita.

Para el curso clásico, 13 prescritas: 3 inglés, 2 matemáticas, 1 historia, 4 latín, 3 idiomas.

Grados:

B. A.—Curso de cuatro años en la escuela de artes liberales.

B. C.—Curso de cuatro años en:
- Escuela de agricultura.
- Escuela de ingeniería.
- Escuela de minas.
- Escuela de ciencias naturales.
- Departamento de economía doméstica.

M. A., M. C., I. Civ., I. Mec., I. Eléc., I. M.—Estos grados se confieren a aquellos que hubieren optado el título de bachiller y llenado un programa especial de estudios superiores arreglado por el comité de la facultad.

Se ofrece un curso de tres años anterior al de leyes y al de medicina. El alumno que termine este curso recibe el grado de bachiller después de un año de estudios en la escuela profesional.

Gastos:

Instrucción, gratuita.	
Cuota del gimnasio	$10
Cuota de la biblioteca	3
Gastos incidentales	35
Alimentación, por semana	3–4
Alojamiento en los dormitorios del colegio, por año	35–50
Alojamiento fuera del colegio, por año	36–72

Facultad, 175.

Estudiantes, 2,006, de los cuales 25 son extranjeros.

Especialmente interesante para los estudiantes extranjeros.—El curso de ingeniería industrial se propone preparar al estudiante para el desempeño de puestos en organizaciones industriales que se refieran a la superintendencia, compra y venta, administración científica y administración industrial y comercial. Además de las materias ordinarias de ingeniería, se insiste en la educación en economía, lógica, psicología, y estudios especiales en contabilidad, administración de los bosques, regulación de las horas de taller, útiles y sistema de las maquinarias, y planos de fábricas, acompañado de práctica de taller más continuada de lo que exige generalmente el programa de ingeniería. Se ofrece también un curso de educación industrial para maestros e inspectores.

Pennsylvania es uno de los estados mineros más importantes en el país, de manera que ofrece a los estudiantes de la escuela de minas amplia oportunidad para observar de cerca procesos mineros y metalúrgicos.

El instituto de nutrición animal, afiliado con el colegio y la estación experimental, está dedicado enteramente a estudios de investigación y procura amplias facilidades para la labor de los graduados en este materia.

UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA, Filadelfia, Pennsylvania, ciudad de 1,631,956 habitantes. Institución fundada en 1740.

El Colegio. Departamento de artes y ciencias, para estudiantes no graduados; estudios especiales en música y biología.

Admisión, para el curso en artes y ciencias: 14½ unidades, 9½ prescritas: 3 inglés, 1 historia, 2½ matemáticas, 3 ó 4 idiomas. Si solamente se ofreciera un idioma, los requisitos serían como sigue: en latín, 4 unidades; en griego, 3; en francés, 3; en italiano, 3; y en español, 3 unidades. Si se ofrecieran dos idiomas, los requisitos serían por lo menos dos unidades en cada uno de ellos.

Cursos:

Artes y ciencias, cuatro años. Grado: B. A.

Biología, tres, cuatro o cinco años, a elección del alumno.

Admisión: 14½ unidades, 8½ prescritas: 3 inglés, 1 historia, 2½ matemáticas, 2 idiomas.

Grado: B. C. en biología.

Música, abierto sólo para estudios especiales.

Admisión: Conocimiento de los rudimentos de música, habilidad en tocar algún instrumento, 1½ unidades de inglés.

A la terminación del curso de cuatro años se obtiene un certificado de idoneidad.

El grado de bachiller en música se concede después de un año a los que posean este certificado, y presenten examen y alguna composición original.

Escuela Científica Towne.

Admisión: 14½ unidades, 10 prescritas: 3 inglés, 1 historia, 3½ matemáticas, ½ física, 2 francés o alemán. Para el curso de arquitectura sólo se prescriben tres unidades de matemáticas.

Cursos de cuatro años, a menos de arreglo posterior:

Arquitectura. Grado, B. C. en arquitectura.

Cursos para graduados para obtener el grado de M. C. en arquitectura; un año de estudio después del título de B. C.

Dos años de estudios especiales permiten recibir el certificado de idoneidad.

Ingeniería arquitectónica. Grado, B. C. en I. Arq.

Ingeniería química. Grado, B. C. en I. Q.

Química. Grado, B. C. en química.

Ingeniería civil. Grado, B. C. en I. Civ.

Ingeniería eléctrica. Grado, B. C. en I. Eléc.

Ingeniería mecánica. Grado, B. C. en I. Méc.

Escuela Wharton de Comercio y Finanzas.

Admisión: 14½ unidades, 8½ prescritas: 3 inglés, 1 historia, 2½ matemàticas, 2 idiomas.

Cursos:

Comercio y finanzas, cuatro años. Grado, B. C. en economía.

Cursos especiales en práctica comercial y labor bancaria: dos años de estudio para obtener el certificado de idoneidad.

Escuela de Pedagogía fundada en 1914; mixta.

Admisión: 14½ unidades, 8½ prescritas; 3 inglés, 2½ matemáticas, 1 historia, 2 latín, francés o alemán.

Curso, cuatro años. Graduación al completar 64 unidades de estudio, cuatro de las cuales deben ser en educación física. Las otras sesenta unidades se distribuyen de la manera siguiente: 26 de las materias comprendidas en la tabla, 11 de materias fundamentales para la profesión, 15 en los ramos especiales a que piense encaminarse la enseñanza, y 8 libres a elección.

Grado: B. C. en educación. Se ofrecen también cursos para los grados de M. A. y Dr. Fil. en la escuela de graduados.

Escuela para Graduados; mixta.
Admisión: Grado de bachiller en colegio calificado de los Estados Unidos o su equivalente en instituciones extranjeras.
Grados:
M. A. y M. C.—Un año de estudios superiores.
Dr. Fil.—Tres años de estudios superiores; tesis.

Escuela de Derecho.
Admisión: Grado de bachiller en colegio calificado, o su equivalente.
Grados:
B. L.—Curso de tres años.
M. L.—Un año después del grado de bachiller; tesis.

Escuela de Medicina.
Admisión: 14½ unidades de estudio en escuela secundaria, 10½ prescritas: 3 inglés, 1 historia, 2½ matemáticas, 4 idiomas. Dos idiomas diferentes y dos unidades por lo menos de cada uno. Si se ofrece latín, deben completarse cuatro unidades en esta lengua, aumentando así a 12½ el número de unidades prescritas. A los estudios de la escuela secundaria deben seguir dos años de estudio de colegio, que comprenda las siguientes materias: química, incluyendo química general y análisis cuantitativo, 6 unidades; física, 4 unidades; zoología o biología general, 4; francés o alemán, 3; y por lo menos 13 unidades contadas en las materias ofrecidas a los estudiantes de primero y segundo año en colegios y universidades de norma establecida. El estudio de las tres ciencias nombradas debe incluir trabajos de laboratorio realizados por el estudiante, quien presentará la agenda correspondiente debidamente certificada.
Grados:
Dr. Med.—Curso de cuatro años.
Dr. Sal. Púb.—Un año de estudios en higiene pública posteriores a la graduación en una escuela de medicina calificada.
Diploma en salubridad.—Un año de estudios en higiene pública para los que no hubieren recibido el grado de doctor en medicina.

Escuela Dental.
Admisión: Graduación en high-school aprobada o cualquier otro curso equivalente de cuatro años.
Grado: Dr. C. D.—Curso de tres años.

Escuela de Medicina Veterinaria.
Admisión: Dos años de estudio en escuela secundaria aprobada, comprendiendo por lo menos 8 unidades, 5 prescritas: 2 inglés, 2 matemáticas, 1 historia.
Grado: Dr. Med. Vet.

Gastos:

Instrucción—	
Cursos en artes y ciencias, educación, comercio y finanzas, biología y ciencia dental	$150
Derecho	200
Medicina, ingeniería, química y arquitectura	250
Escuela de graduados, según los estudios, no excede de	150
Medicina veterinaria	100
Música	30
Alojamiento y alimentación	185–350
Gasto total por año	365 605

Facultad, 560.

Estudiantes 6, 332, de los cuales 265 son extranjeros.

Especialmente interesante para los alumnos extranjeros.—La escuela de medicina, fundada en 1765, es la más antigua y una de las mejores en el país. Está perfectamente equipada con museos y laboratorios. El hospital de la universidad sostiene cerca de cuatrocientas plazas y en combinación con otros hospitales en la ciudad, ofrece excelentes facilidades clínicas. En los dos primeros años del curso se estudia la ciencia médica fundamental, dedicándose la otra mitad del tiempo a estudios especiales y de clínica. Se ofrece también instrucción en higiene pública a los graduados. El instituto Phipps para el estudio de la profilaxia y tratamiento de la tuberculosis facilita las investigaciones en tal sentido.

El curso en medicina tropical interesará probablemente a los estudiantes de las regiones meridionales.

La escuela Wharton figura entre las instituciones más prominentes que ofrecen instrucción en los ramos de comercio y de finanzas. El programa durante los dos primeros años está prescrito detalladamente. En los dos últimos se dejan clases a elección en derecho comercial, comercio y transporte, economía, contabilidad y finanzas, geografía e industria, seguros, ciencias políticas y sociología.

La escuela dental es de primera clase y atrae muchos estudiantes de fuera. Durante el primer año el tiempo del estudio se divide por igual entre labor dental, histológica y química de laboratorio. En los dos últimos años se procuran amplias facilidades para la práctica dental mecánica y quirúrgica.

La escuela de medicina veterinaria está perfectamente equipada. Mantiene un hospital de veterinaria y goza de acceso a los potreros locales, mataderos, y granjas de cría de ganado y de lechería.

Entre los departamentos de estudios especiales que no hemos mencionado en la escuela Wharton o en las demás escuelas a que hemos hecho referencia, los de química y biología gozan de gran reputación.

CLEMSON AGRICULTURAL COLLEGE, Clemson College, South Carolina, ciudad de 759 habitantes. Institución concesionaria, fundada en 1889.

Admisión: Las materias están divididas en tres grupos:

A, inglés y matemáticas; B, historia; C, ciencias y latín. Diez unidades, 8 prescritas, que deben solucionarse de la manera siguiente: 4 del grupo A, 1 del grupo B, y 3 del grupo C.

Cursos de cuatro años:	Grados.
Agricultura	B. C. en Agr.
Química	B. C. en Q.
Ingeniería mecánica y eléctrica	B. C. en I. Mec. y Eléc.
Ingeniería civil	B. C. en I. Civ.
Industria textoria	B. C. en Ind. textoria.
Ingeniería arquitectónica	B. C. en I. Arq.

Gastos:	
Instrucción (gratuita para los habitantes de South Carolina que no puedan pagar)	$40
Alojamiento y alimentación durante nueve meses	90
Gasto total por año	200

Facultad 64.

Estudiantes, 818, de los cuales 6 son extranjeros.

Especialmente interesante para los estudiantes extranjeros.—En el departamento de agricultura se ofrecen grandes facilidades para el estudio de las diferentes fases de los tópicos que se relacionen con los países meridionales. Se presta atención al cultivo y clasificación del algodón. El edificio de industria textil, construído al estilo de las modernas factorías, proporciona a los alumnos la ocasión de familiarizarse con diversas fases de la construcción de talleres, manipulación de la fibra de algodón y con el funcionamiento de las fábricas de algodón. El colegio Clemson sostiene estrecha relación con la estación experimental de agricultura del estado.

GEORGE PEABODY COLLEGE FOR TEACHERS, Nashville, Tennessee, ciudad de 113,822 habitantes. Institución fundada en 1875 como escuela normal del estado; reorganizada y clasificada en 1909; mixta, pero acepta únicamente estudiantes de raza blanca.

Organización:
Escuela de Educación.
Escuela de Artes prácticas (artes industriales y economía doméstica).
Escuela Rural Seaman A. Knapp.
La escuela rural y la de artes prácticas ofrecen cursos solamente durante los dos primeros años. A la terminación de estos se matricula el alumno en la escuela de educación que dicta cursos después del segundo año únicamente y confiere todos los grados.

Admisión a los cursos para no graduados:
En las escuelas rural y de artes prácticas: Graduación en escuela secundaria aprobada con curso de cuatro años o su equivalente.
En la escuela de educación: Dos años de estudio en la escuela de artes prácticas o en la campestre; en escuela normal aprobada concurso de dos años superior a high-school; o dos años de colegio.

Grado: B. C.—Curso combinado de cuatro años en las escuelas de artes prácticas, rural y de educación, o su equivalente.

Admisión a los cursos para alumnos graduados:
En la escuela de educación: Grado de bachiller en colegio calificado.

Grados:
M. A.—Un año de estudios superiores; tesis.
Dr. Fil.—Dos años por lo menos de estudios superiores; tesis. (Rara vez es posible completar en menos de tres años los requisitos para este grado.)

Gastos:

Instrucción, por año escolar de 36 semanas (o $25 por un trimestre)	$75
Alojamiento y alimentación, por mes	20–30
Gasto total por año	300–400

Facultad, 25.
Estudiantes, 207.

Especialmente interesante para los estudiantes extranjeros.—El colegio se reorganizó completamente en 1909 y comenzó a funcionar en el verano de 1914. Goza de liberal dotación y su objeto principal es procurar amplia instrucción a los obreros en todos los ramos de educación. La escuela de artes prácticas, en su división de artes industriales, ofrece instrucción a los maestros de artes manuales, a los especialistas en trabajos de metal y de madera, y a los impresores, así como a los maestros e inspectores de dibujo y labor manual. En la división de economía doméstica se dictan clases en casi todos los ramos de labor femenina casera, ofreciendo facilidades para estudios especiales en costura y tejidos, comestibles y cocina. La escuela rural Seaman A. Knapp incluye cursos para los directores de labor en comunidades campesinas.

Un convenio con la universidad Vanderbilt permite a los alumnos matriculados en cualquiera de estas instituciones gozar, sin gasto adicional, de las ventajas que ambas universidades ofrecen.

El colegio funciona durante todo el año, dividiéndose el estudio en cuatro trimestres de doce semanas cada uno aproximadamente. Los alumnos pueden acortar positivamente el número de años de residencia requerido para ciertos grados, asistiendo a las clases durante las sesiones de verano en el trimestre extra del año escolar.

VANDERBILT UNIVERSITY, **Nashville, Tennessee, ciudad de 113,822 habitantes. Institución incorporada en 1872; mixta.**

El Colegio—Departamento de artes y ciencias para alumnos no graduados.

Admisión: 14 unidades. Para el grado de bachiller en artes, todas prescritas: 3 inglés, 3 matemáticas, 4 latín, 3 griego, 1 historia o ciencias. Para B. C., 12 prescritas: 3 inglés, 3 matemáticas, 4 idiomas, 2 historia o ciencias.

Grados: B. A. y B. C.—Cursos de cuatro años.

Departamento para Graduados.

Admisión: Grado de bachiller en colegio calificado.

Grados:

M. A. y M. C.—Un año de estudios superiores; tesis.

Dr. Fil. y Dr. C.—Tres años de estudios superiores; tesis.

Departamento de Ingeniería.

Admisión: 14 unidades, como para el grado de bachiller en ciencias.

Grados:

B. I.—Curso de cuatro años en ingeniería civil, mecánica, eléctrica y química.

I. Civ.—Un año del curso en ingeniería civil para graduados; tesis.

I. Mec.—Un año del curso en ingeniería mecánica para graduados; tesis.

I. Eléc.—Un año del curso en ingeniería mecánica y física para graduados; tesis.

Departamento Bíblico.

Admisión: Ningún requisito definido. Se admite a todo aquel capaz de seguir los estudios, siempre que tenga satisfactorias referencias.

Grado: B. T.—Grado de bachiller en colegio calificado. Tres años de estudios superiores; tesis. Se otorga un diploma a los que no hayan optado el título de bachiller y completan el curso en el departamento bíblico.

Departamento de Jurisprudencia.

Admisión: 14 unidades, 6 prescritas: 3 inglés, 2 matemáticas, 1 historia.

Grado: B. L.—Curso de tres años.

Departamento de Medicina.

Admisión: Un año de estudio de colegio, incluyendo física, química, biología y un idioma moderno.

Grado: Dr. Med.—Curso de cuatro años.

Departamento de Farmacia.

Admisión: 14 unidades, 8 prescritas: 2 inglés, 2 matemáticas, 2 idiomas, 2 historia o ciencias.

Grados:

Farmacéutico—Curso de dos años.

B. C. en Farm.—Curso de cuatro años.

Departamento Dental.

Admisión: Graduación en escuela secundaria aprobada.

Grado: Dr. C. D.—Curso de tres años.

Gastos.

Instrucción, incluyendo matrícula y uso de biblioteca:	
Departamento bíblico	$25
Departamento de farmacia	70
Departamentos académico y de ingeniería	105
Jurisprudencia y medicina	150
Departamento dental	155
Alojamiento y pensión, por mes	15-18
Gasto total por año	300-417

Facultad, 120.

Estudiantes, 1,112, de los cuales 9 son extranjeros.

Especialmente interesante para los estudiantes extranjeros.—Los excelentes cursos que ofrece el departamento dental y su espléndido equipo, lo colocan entre las principales escuelas dentales de toda la nación.

La universidad Vanderbilt está afiliada con el colegio George Peabody para maestros, de manera que los alumnos inscritos en cualquiera de estas instituciones tienen derecho a gozar, sin gasto extraordinario, de todas las ventajas y facilidades que ambas ofrecen.

RANDOLPH-MACON WOMAN'S COLLEGE, Lynchburg, Virginia, ciudad de 8,000 habitantes. Institución fundada en 1893, solamente para mujeres.

Admisión: 15 unidades, 9½ prescritas: 3 inglés, 2½ matemáticas, 4 latín.

Grados:

B. A.—Curso de cuatro años.

M. A.—Un año de estudios posteriores al bachillerato.

Se otorga certificado de idoneidad a las alumnas que siguieren los cursos de música o artes.

Gastos.

Instrucción (cuota adicional por clases de arte o de música)	$75
Alimentación	200
Gasto total por año	300-500

Facultad, 45.

Estudiantes, 584, de las cuales 6 son extranjeras.

UNIVERSITY OF VIRGINIA, Charlottesville, Virginia, ciudad de 8,000 habitantes, en el cruce de los ferrocarriles de Chesapeake & Ohio, y los del Sur. Institución fundada en 1819.

El Colegio. Departamento para alumnos no graduados.

Admisión: 14 unidades, 10½ prescritas: 3 inglés, 2½ matemáticas, 1 historia. Para el grado de bachiller en artes, 4 de latín; para bachiller en ciencias, 4 de idiomas modernos.

Grados: B. A. y B. C.—Curso de cuatro años. Si el alumno llevara a cabo suficiente labor en alguno de los departamentos de ciencias naturales o matemáticas, puede otorgársele el grado de bachiller vocacional en ciencias, con especial mención de la materia a que se hubiere dedicado.

Departamento para Graduados.

Admisión: Grado de bachiller en colegio calificado.

Grados:

M. A. y M. C.—Un año de estudios superiores.

Dr. Fil.—Tres años de estudios superiores; tesis.

Departamento de Jurisprudencia.

Admisión: 14 unidades, 6½ prescritas: 3 inglés, 2½ matemáticas, 1 historia.

Grado: B. L.—Curso de tres años.

Departamento de Medicina.

Admisión: Un año de estudio de colegio.

Grado: Dr. Med.—Curso de cuatro años.

Departamento de Ingeniería.

Admisión: 14 unidades, 7½ prescritas: 3 inglés, 3½ matemáticas, 1 historia.

Grados: I. Civ., I. Mec., I. Eléc., I. M. e I. Q.—Cursos de cuatro años; tesis.

Gastos:

Instrucción, gratuita en el colegio y departamentos de graduados para los habitantes de Virginia.

En el colegio	$95
Departamento para graduados	75
Departamentos de medicina y jurisprudencia	100

Gastos—Continúa.

Departamentos de ingeniería:	
Estudiantes de Virginia	$50
Estudiantes de fuera	100
Pensión universitaria	40
Para los de Virginia, en el colegio y departamentos para graduados	10
Alimentación, en los refectorios de la universidad, por mes	16.50
Alimentación fuera de la universidad, por mes	15-20
Alojamiento en los dormitorios de la universidad	50-100
Alojamiento fuera de la universidad, por mes	5-25
Gasto total por año	250-500

Facultad, 73.

Estudiantes, 920, de los cuales 5 son extranjeros.

Especialmente interesante para los extranjeros.—La universidad de Virginia debe su instalación a Tomás Jéfferson. y la memoria e ideales de este gran hombre constituyen las tradiciones más preciadas de la institución. Su filosofía educadora triunfa aún en muchas partes del programa y organización.

La escuela de medicina presta facilidades especiales de laboratorio para estudios de investigación. El hospital y el dispensario de la universidad de Virginia procuran instrucción clínica y en combinación con el hospital sostiene la universidad una escuela de enfermeras.

UNIVERSITY OF WASHINGTON, Seattle, Washington, ciudad de 295,226 habitantes. Institución mixta, fundada en 1861.

Colegio de Artes liberales, para alumnos no graduados.

Admisión: 15 unidades, 11 o 12 prescritas: 3 inglés, 2½ matemáticas, 1 ciencias, 2 idiomas, 1 historia, ½ geometría del espacio, y 1 adicional de ciencias o 2 de idiomas.

Grado: B. A.—Curso de cuatro años. Incluye estudios generales, economía doméstica, periodismo, economía bibliotecaria y comercio.

Colegio de Ciencias.

Admisión: 15 unidades, 11 prescritas: 3 inglés, 3 matemáticas, 2 ciencias, 2 idiomas, 1 historia.

Grados:

B. C.—Curso de cuatro años.

B. C. en economía doméstica.—Curso de cuatro años.

Colegio de Educación.

Admisión: Como en el colegio de artes liberales.

Grados:

Bachiller en educación.—Curso de cuatro años.

M. A. o M. C. en Educ.—Un año de estudios superiores al grado de bachiller en ciencias. Se otorgan también diplomas, válidos en todas las escuelas públicas del estado.

Colegio de Ingeniería.

Admisión: 15 unidades, 10 prescritas: 3 inglés, 3 matemáticas, 1 ciencias, 2 idiomas, 1 historia.

Grados:

B. C. en I. Civ., en I. Eléc., I. Mec., e I. Q.—Cursos de cuatro años.

El colegio ofrece además otro curso de cuatro años en cada uno de sus departamentos para procurar base más amplia en instrucción general con opción simplemente al grado de bachiller en ciencias.

M. C. en I. Civ., en I. Eléc., I. Mec., e I. Q.—Un año de estudios superiores al grado de bachiller; tesis.

I. Civ., I. Eléc., e I. Mec.—Estos son grados profesionales que se confieren, a la presentación de una tesis, sin necesidad de estudio de residencia, a aquellos que hubieren optado el grado de bachiller y de maestro y tenido uno y dos años respectivamente de labor profesional.

- Colegio de Bellas Artes.
  - Admisión: Como en el colegio de artes liberales. Para el curso de música se requiere un estudio anterior de cuatro años en música.
  - Grados:
    - B. Mús.—Curso de cuatro años.
    - B. Arq.—Curso de cuatro años.
    - Certificado de idoneidad se otorga a los que no hubieren llenado los requisitos para el grado.
    - Certificado de idoneidad.—Curso de dos años en artes.
- Colegio de Selvicultura.
  - Admisión: 15 unidades, 11 prescritas, como en el colegio de ciencias, excepto que se requiere una unidad en botánica en lugar de la de química o biología.
  - Grados:
    - B. C.—Curso de cuatro años.
    - M. C. en Selv.—Un año de estudios posteriores al grado de bachiller.
- Estación Marítima Puget Sound. Funciona solamente en verano bajo la dirección de la universidad de Wáshington. Situada en Friday Harbor, Wáshington.
  - Admisión: Conocimiento de la biología marítima.
  - Instrucción, $10.
  - Gastos de subsistencia moderados en seis semanas.
- Escuela de Derecho.
  - Admisión: Dos años de curso de colegio.
  - Grado: B. L.—Curso de tres años.
- Colegio de Minas.
  - Admisión: 15 unidades, como en el colegio de ciencias.
  - Grados:
    - B. C.—Curso de cuatro años en ciencia general.
    - B. C. en ingeniería de minas.—Curso de cuatro años.
    - B. C. en geología y mineralogía.—Curso de cuatro años.
    - B. C. en ingeniería metalúrgica.—Curso de cuatro años.
    - B. C. en ingeniería carbonífera minera.—Curso de cuatro años.
    - M. C. en ingeniería de minas.—Un año de estudios superiores; tesis.
    - I. M. e I. Met.—Grados profesionales conferidos sin necesidad de estudio de residencia, a la presentación de una tesis, a los que hubieren recibido el grado de bachiller y desempeñado alguna labor profesional durante tres años por lo menos.
- Colegio de Farmacia.
  - Admisión: 15 unidades, 9½ prescritas: 3 inglés, 2 idiomas, 2½ matemáticas, 1 ciencias, 1 historia.
  - Grados:
    - Q. Farm.—Curso de dos años.
    - B. C.—Curso de cuatro años.
    - M. C. en Farm.—Un año de estudios posteriores al grado de bachiller en ciencias; tesis.
- Escuela para Graduados.
  - Admisión: Grado de bachiller en colegio calificado.
  - Grados:
    - M. A. o M. C.—Un año de estudios superiores; tesis.
    - Dr. Fil.—Tres años por lo menos de estudios superiores; tesis. Este grado se otorga solamente en tres departamentos: química, inglés y botánica.
- Gastos.

Matrícula	$10
Instrucción en los colegios de artes liberales, ciencias, educación, ingeniería, bellas artes, selvicultura y minas	20
Colegio de jurisprudencia	65

Gastos—Continúa.

Estación marítima	$10
Alimentación en la universidad, por mes	17.50
Alojamiento en la universidad, por año	24
Alojamiento y alimentación fuera de la universidad, por mes	23-30
Gasto anual mínimo	350

Facultad, 194.

Estudiantes, 3,616, de los cuales 75 son extranjeros.

Especialmente interesante para los estudiantes extranjeros.—Seattle es el centro de la industria en maderas en el noroeste y procura, por consiguiente, amplia ocasión de observar el lado práctico de la selvicultura. Pueden encontrarse ejemplos de cultivo y manejo de los bosques en las propiedades nacionales, de igual manera que en las que posee la universidad en diversos lugares de la comarca. El programa comprende estudios especiales de los bosques y labor del estado, ingeniería del corte de madera, productos de la selva, etc., y ofrece también cursos en dendrología, selvicultura, tecnología de la madera, física de los árboles y preservación de la madera.

Una dotación de $30,000 de la fundación Gatzert permite a la escuela de educación procurar enseñanza especial a los niños defectuosos.

El estado de Wáshington y las comarcas adyacentes ofrecen admirable ocasión a los estudiantes de la escuela de minas para familiarizarse con las operaciones metalúrgicas y mineras y con las maquinarias para minas.

UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN, Madison, Wisconsin, ciudad de 30,282 habitantes y capital de Wisconsin. Institución concesionaria, mixta, fundada en 1848.

Colegio de Letras y de Ciencias, para alumnos no graduados.

Admisión: 14 unidades, 6 prescritas: 2 inglés, 2 matemáticas, 2 idiomas.

Grados:

B. A.—Curso de cuatro años; tesis, o estudios especiales con informe.

B. Fil.—Curso de dos años en filosofía y educación para los graduados en escuela normal.

Curso de Farmacia.

Admisión, para el curso de dos años: graduación en high-school aprobada. Los estudiantes no graduados de 18 años por lo menos y que presenten prueba de un año de high-school y experiencia práctica, pueden también ingresar.

Para el curso de cuatro años: 14 unidades, como en el colegio de letras y de ciencias.

Grados:

Farmacéutico—Curso de dos años.

B. C. en Farm.—Curso de cuatro años.

Curso de Comercio.

Admisión: Los estudiantes que hayan llenado los requisitos impuestos para el ingreso al colegio de letras y de ciencias, podrán ser admitidos a este curso.

Grado: B. C. en Com.—Curso de cuatro años; tesis, o estudios especiales con informe.

Curso de Química.

Admisión: Iguales requisitos a los del colegio de letras y de ciencias.

Grado: B. C. Q.—Curso de cuatro años; tesis, o estudios especiales con informe.

Curso de Periodismo.

Admisión: Los estudiantes que hayan llenado los requisitos para ingreso al colegio de letras y de ciencia, serán admitidos a este curso.

Grado: B. A. en Per.—Curso de cuatro años; tesis, o estudios especiales con informe.

Colegio de Ingeniería.

Admisión: 14 unidades, 7½ u 8 prescritas: 2 inglés, 2½ o 3 matemáticas, 2 idiomas, 1 ciencias.

Grado: B. C. (con mención especial del ramo elegido).—Curso de cuatro años en ingeniería civil. mecánica, eléctrica, química o de minas.

Escuela de Derecho.

Admisión: Dos años de curso de colegio.

Grado: B. L.—Curso de tres años y seis meses por lo menos de práctica en una oficina de derecho acreditada.

Colegio de Agricultura.

Admisión: 14 unidades, como en el colegio de letras y de ciencias.

Grados:

- B. C. Agr.—Curso de cuatro años en agricultura.
- B. C. en economía doméstica.—Curso de cuatro años en economía doméstica.

Título: Graduado en Agricultura.—Curso de dos años en agricultura.

Escuela de Medicina.

Admisión: Dos años de estudios de colegio. La escuela ófrece solamente los dos primeros años del curso de medicina y no confiere grados.

Diploma de Salubridad Pública.—Curso de un año en salubridad pública, después del grado de Dr. Med.

Curso para la instrucción de Maestros.

Admisión: Dos años de estudio de colegio.

Grado: B. A. o B. C.

Diploma: Otorgado a la terminación del estudio principal y de cursos especiales en filosofía, educación, y clases para la instrucción de maestros en los diferentes departamentos.

Curso Bibliotecario.

Admisión: Para el curso independiente bibliotecario de un año, exámenes de oposición en historia, literatura general, acontecimientos corrientes y alemán. Además entrevista personal.

Certificado de la Escuela Bibliotecaria.

Admisión: Para seguir el curso bibliotecario, 96 horas de crédito en el colegio de letras y de ciencias. Deben presentarse exámenes en la escuela bibliotecaria.

Grado: B. A. y certificado de la escuela bibliotecaria.

Escuela de Música.

Admisión: 14 unidades, como en el colegio de letras y de ciencias. Ejecución en piano y violín y facilidad de leer la música.

Grado: Graduado en música.—Curso de cuatro años. Se otorga un certificado a los que siguen el curso de dos años para inspector de música en las escuelas públicas.

Escuela para Graduados.

Admisión: Grado de bachiller en colegio calificado.

Grados:

- M. A., M. C. y M. Fil.—Un año de estudios superiores.
- I. Civ., I. Mec., I. Eléc., I. Q. e I. M.—Un año de estudios superiores en ingeniería y tesis. Los graduados en el colegio de ingeniería de la Universidad de Wisconsin pueden recibir también el grado superior de ingeniería sin estudio de residencia, siempre que hayan desempeñado labor profesional tres años ocupando durante uno de ellos cualquier puesto de responsabilidad.
- Dr. Fil.—Tres años por lo menos de estudios superiores a la graduación; tesis.
- Dr. Sal. pública.—Dos años de estudios superiores en salubridad pública, para los que hubieren optado el grado de Dr. Med. en escuela médica calificada.

Gastos.

Instrucción (gratuita para los ciudadanos de Wisconsin)	$100
Gastos incidentales	24
Escuela Bibliotecaria:	
Instrucción para los residentes en Wisconsin, por año	50
Para los de fuera, por año	100
Alojamiento en la universidad	60 118
Alimentación en la universidad, por semana	4.50

Facultad, 651, de los cuales asisten la mitad del tiempo aproximadamente 175 ayudantes y conferencistas.

Estudiantes, 4,686, de los cuales 106 son de naciones extranjeras.

Especialmente interesante para los estudiantes extranjeros.—El curso especial en química está arreglado para satisfacer las aspiraciones de aquellos que desean estudiar la química como medio de subsistencia, e incluye clases generales y especiales en química industrial, agrícola, de abonos, fisiológica, sanitaria y de los alimentos. El estudio del primer año es igual para todas estas materias.

El estudio periodístico incluye clases para familiarizar al alumno con las condiciones políticas, sociales y económicas de actualidad, y con la literatura propia y extraña; para desarrollar su habilidad de escritor; y para darle la instrucción técnica indispensable. Se ofrece a los interesados amplia oportunidad para la práctica en periodismo comercial y profesional.

En combinación con la labor del colegio de agricultura, debe hacerse mención especial de las clases en ganadaria, productos de lechería, cría de vacas lecheras y estudio del terreno. En casi todos los departamentos hay facilidades para estudios prácticos y se mantienen estrechas relaciones con la estación experimental del Estado.

La universidad es el punto culminante del sistema de educación gratuita de Wisconsin; y está enlazada por igual a las high-schools y a las escuelas primarias y secundarias de su sistema. Más aún; sostiene la universidad las relaciones más estrechas con los intereses del estado y por medio de su vasta labor procura instrucción más completa a todo el pueblo.

El curso de farmacia es especialmente completo, siendo la universidad una de las instituciones que presta atención más sistemática a sus instalaciones químicas.

Los cursos de ciencias políticas, economía y sociología son dignos de especial mención.

SECCIÓN VII.

TABLAS ESTADÍSTICAS PARA EL AÑO DE 1914.

TABLA 1.—*Universidades de los Estados.*

[Las universidades marcadas con asterisco incluyen colegios de mecánica y agricultura.]

Ciudades.	Instituciones.	Para hombres, para mujeres o mixtas.	Facultad colegiada y profesional.	Colegiales, graduados y profesionales.	Ingresos.	Dotación.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
University, Ala.	University of Alabama	Mix	82	726	$202,558	$555,809
Tucson, Ariz.	University of Arizona*	Mix	38	123	243,064	10,500
Fayetteville, Ark.	University of Arkansas*	Mix	139	735	233,593	130,000
Berkeley, Cal.	University of California*	Mix	457	5,929	2,499,457	5,626,220
Boulder, Colo.	University of Colorado	Mix	142	1,236	305,615	....
Gainesville, Fla.	University of Florida*	Hom	39	295	171,109	219,650
Athens, Ga.	University of Georgia*	Hom	71	660	250,135	371,202
Moscow, Idaho	University of Idaho*	Mix	73	405	262,119	798,005
Urbana, Ill.	University of Illinois*	Mix	643	4,920	2,824,053	648,443
Bloomington, Ind.	Indiana University	Mix	270	1,927	378,265	744,000
Iowa City, Iowa	State University of Iowa	Mix	224	2,270	942,494	259,733
Lawrence, Kans.	University of Kansas	Mix	233	2,336	632,423	151,000
Lexington, Ky.	State University of Kentucky*	Mix	106	841	282,894	165,000
Baton Rouge, La.	Louisiana State University and Agricultural and Mechanical College.*	Mix	84	707	282,262	318,312
Orono, Me.	University of Maine*	Mix	96	866	391,526	238,300
Ann Arbor, Mich.	University of Michigan	Mix	354	5,520	2,177,860	940,284
Minneapolis, Minn.	University of Minnesota*	Mix	366	3,771	2,907,107	1,605,356
University, Miss.	University of Mississippi	Mix	32	354	116,086	700,000
Columbia, Mo.	University of Missouri*	Mix	259	2,726	1,459,983	1,505,339
Missoula, Mont.	University of Montana	Mix	45	281	169,414	....
Lincoln, Nebr.	University of Nebraska*	Mix	244	3,054	1,004,706	786,555
Reno, Nev.	University of Nevada*	Mix	41	308	192,823	150,400
Albuquerque, N. Mex.	University of New Mexico	Mix	17	90	70,767	....
Chapel Hill, N. C.	University of North Carolina	Mix	62	891	237,027	101,300
University, N. Dak.	University of North Dakota	Mix	75	668	252,766	1,706,698
Athens, Ohio	Ohio University	Mix	44	640	278,819	165,000
Columbus, Ohio	Ohio State University*	Mix	328	3,829	1,283,727	985,070
Oxford, Ohio	Miami University	Mix	48	638	185,418	115,315
Norman, Okla.	University of Oklahoma	Mix	123	1,101	278,197	....
Eugene, Oreg.	University of Oregon	Mix	113	1,070	207,979	5,500
Columbia, S. C.	University of South Carolina	Mix	37	523	62,449	....
Vermillion, S. Dak.	University of South Dakota	Mix	51	386	146,586	....
Knoxville, Tenn.	University of Tennessee	Mix	127	952	262,773	405,000
Austin, Tex.	University of Texas	Mix	171	2,530	871,386	2,505,000
Salt Lake City, Utah	University of Utah	Mix	77	1,245	292,894	....
Burlington, Vt.	University of Vermont and State Agricultural College.*	Mix	109	600	270,767	1,050,076
Charlottesville, Va.	University of Virginia	Hom	73	919	432,838	2,119,174
Seattle, Wash.	University of Washington	Mix	177	2,403	601,238	5,000,000
Morgantown, W. Va.	West Virginia University*	Mix	102	672	327,557	115,104
Madison, Wis.	University of Wisconsin*	Mix	523	4,616	2,969,475	679,084
Laramie, Wyo.	University of Wyoming*	Mix	53	170	177,187	60,852

TABLA 2.—*Colegios de mecánica y de agricultura independientes de las universidades de los Estados.*

Ciudades.	Instituciones.	Para hombres o mixtas.	Facultad colegiada y profesional.	Colegiales, graduados y profesionales.	Ingresos.	Dotación.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Auburn, Ala	Alabama Polytechnic Institute.	Mix	72	820	$202,726	$284,500
Fort Collins, Colo	Colorado State Agricultural College.	Mix	67	534	244,554	183,409
Storrs, Conn	Connecticut Agricultural College.	Mix	27	148	257,278	136,000
Newark, Del	Delaware College	Mix	29	159	192,641	169,000
Lafayette, Ind	Purdue University	Mix	185	1,873	787,401	340,000
Ames, Iowa	Iowa State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts.	Mix	260	2,091	1,250,652	686,818
Manhattan, Kans	Kansas State Agricultural College.	Mix	183	1,662	871,144	491,746
College Park, Md	Maryland Agricultural College.	Hom	32	214	134,980	115,943
Amherst, Mass	Massachusetts Agricultural College.	Mix	61	607	467,988	361,000
East Lansing, Mich	Michigan Agricultural College.	Mix	145	1,440	565,287	991,674
Agricultural College, Miss.	Mississippi Agricultural and Mechanical College.	Mix	62	809	449,847	239,787
Bozeman, Mont	Montana College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts.	Mix	44	115	250,061	519,719
Durham, N. H	New Hampshire College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts.	Mix	47	292	274,981	950,000
New Brunswick, N. J	Rutgers College	Hom	62	420	405,908	856,215
State College, N. Mex	New Mexico College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts.	Mix	34	63	123,376	....
West Raleigh, N. C	North Carolina College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts.	Hom	62	637	265,407	125,000
Agricultural College, N. Dak.	North Dakota Agricultural College.	Mix	56	283	304,019	1,203,315
Stillwater, Okla	Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College.	Mix	67	645	262,450	....
Corvallis, Oreg	Oregon State Agricultural College.	Mix	131	1,302	712,734	202,114
State College, Pa	Pennsylvania State College	Mix	226	1,923	826,493	592,912
Kingston, R. I	Rhode Island State College	Mix	31	220	133,881	50,000
Clemson College, S. C	Clemson Agricultural College	Hom	62	698	354,211	153,539
Brookings, S. Dak	South Dakota State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts.	Mix	43	266	293,578	257,844
College Station, Tex	Agricultural and Mechanical College of Texas.	Hom	86	865	357,133	209,000
Logan, Utah	Agricultural College of Utah	Mix	62	467	221,853	143,080
Blacksburg, Va	Virginia Agricultural and Mechanical College and Polytechnic Institute.	Hom	53	434	296,860	344,312
Pullman, Wash	State College of Washington	Mix	160	863	549,552	737,940

TABLA 3.—*Escuelas de minas independientes de las universidades.*

Ciudades.	Instituciones.	Para hombres o mixtas.	Facultad colegiada.	Colegiales y graduados.	Ingresos.	Dotación.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Golden, Colo	Colorado School of Mines	Hom	21	209	$120,257	....
Houghton, Mich	Michigan College of Mines	Hom	24	136	85,506	....
Butte, Mont	Montana State School of Mines	Mix	7	56	32,287	....
Socorro, N. Mex	New Mexico School of Mines	Mix	6	16	26,368	....
Wilburton, Okla	Oklahoma State School of Mines.	Hom	7	55	25,009	....
Rapid City, S. Dak	South Dakota State School of Mines.	Mix	10	45	35,900	....

TABLA 4.—*Escuelas tecnológicas independientes de la organización de las universidades.*

Ciudades.	Instituciones.	Para hombres o mixtas.	Facultad colegiada.	Colegiales y graduados.	Ingresos.	Dotación.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Pasadena, Cal..........	Throop College of Technology..	Hom....	21	58	$73,213	$550,358
Atlanta, Ga............	Georgia School of Technology..	Hom....	59	635	133,541	....
Chicago, Ill............	Armour Institute of Technology.	Hom....	56	527	200,000	1,500,000
Terre Haute, Ind......	Rose Polytechnic Institute....	Hom....	21	208	49,948	800,000
Boston, Mass...........	Massachusetts Institute of Technology.	Mix.....	272	1,685	694,413	2,874,467
Worcester, Mass........	Worcester Polytechnic Institute.	Hom....	50	535	150,728	847,600
Hoboken, N. J..........	Stevens Institute of Technology.	Hom....	32	324	122,718	875,000
Brooklyn, N. Y........	Polytechnic Institute of Brooklyn.	Hom....	33	263	183,178	800,000
Potsdam, N. Y.........	Clarkson College of Technology.	Hom....	10	104	24,787	250,000
Troy, N. Y............	Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute.	Hom....	63	626	214,431	1,358,922
Cleveland, Ohio........	Case School of Applied Science.	Hom....	45	531	205,732	2,415,498
Philadelphia, Pa.......	Drexel Institute..............	Mix.....	69	506	95,138	2,000,000
Pittsburgh, Pa.........	Carnegie Institute of Technology.	Mix.....	176	1,133	530,746	8,000,000

TABLA 5.—*Colegios y universidades que no se han incluído en las listas precedentes y que garantizan a las Oficina de Educación 14 unidades por lo menos como requisitos de ingreso para el curso de colegio.*

Ciudades.	Instituciones.	Para hombres, para mujeres o mixtas.	Facultad colegiada y profesional.	Colegiales, graduados y profesionales.	Ingresos.	Dotación.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ALABAMA.						
Birmingham...........	Birmingham College..........	Mix.....	7	54	$15,100	$12,500
Do..................	Howard College..............	Mix.....	9	112	28,210	97,000
Greensboro............	Southern University..........	Mix.....	8	75	28,098	75,000
Marion...............	Judson College..............	Muj.....	12	148	80,320	29,000
Montgomery...........	Woman's College of Alabama..	Muj.....	11	164	59,100	24,000
St. Bernard...........	St. Bernard College..........	Hom....	14	30	....	....
Spring Hill............	Spring Hill College...........	Hom....	10	34	....	....
ARKANSAS.						
Arkadelphia...........	Ouachita College.............	Mix.....	12	251	47,296	19,100
Clarksville............	Arkansas Cumberland College.	Mix.....	4	30	7,045	9,000
Conway...............	Central College..............	Muj.....	6	57	34,282	....
Do..................	Hendrix College..............	Mix.....	9	129	39,848	300,000
CALIFORNIA.						
Claremont............	Pomona College..............	Mix.....	43	465	163,668	475,139
Los Angeles...........	Occidental College...........	Mix.....	22	315	48,696	312,000
Mills College..........	Mills College................	Muj.....	35	115	78,168	486,310
Oakland..............	St. Mary's College...........	Hom....	9	56	49,000	....
San Francisco..........	St. Ignatius University.......	Hom....	15	100	....	....
San José..............	College of the Pacific.........	Mix.....	24	138	54,250	102,875
Santa Clara...........	University of Santa Clara.....	Hom....	28	123	274,200	....
Whittier..............	Whittier College.............	Mix.....	16	106	17,500	150,000
COLORADO.						
Colorado Springs.......	Colorado College.............	Mix.....	49	561	119,816	1,042,000
Denver...............	College of the Sacred Heart....	Hom....	7	46	....	....
Greeley...............	State Teachers College of Colorado.	Mix.....	27	635	136,558	....

TABLE 5.—*Colegios y universidades que no se han incluído en las listas precedentes y que garantizan a la Oficina de Educación 14 unidades por lo menos como requisitos de ingreso para el curso de colegio*—Continuación.

Ciudades.	Instituciones.	Para hombres, para mujeres o mixtas.	Facultad colegiada y profesional.	Colegiales, graduados y profesionales.	Ingresos.	Dotación.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
COLORADO.						
University Park	University of Denver	Mix	121	779	$85,475	$427,000
Westminster	Westminster College	Mix	7	19	....	....
CONNECTICUT.						
Hartford	Trinity College	Hom	28	258	221,990	1,220,538
Middletown	Wesleyan University	Hom	37	413	216,484	2,167,199
FLORIDA.						
De Land	John B. Stetson University	Mix	37	224	97,929	365,539
Tallahassee	Florida State College for Women.	Muj	24	279	96,938	....
Winter Park	Rollins College	Mix	7	96	57,006	220,871
GEORGIA.						
Atlanta	Atlanta University (para gente de color).	Mix	10	44	62,927	167,568
Do	Morris Brown University (para gente de color).	Mix	8	24	....	....
College Park	Cox College	Muj	16	53	....	....
Dahlonega	North Georgia Agricultural College.	Mix	13	112	25,050	....
Decatur	Agnes Scott College	Muj	30	163	97,045	....
Forsyth	Bessie Tift College	Muj	25	167	56,000	6,000
Gainesville	Brenau College	Muj	15	202	151,815	....
Lagrange	Lagrange College	Muj	12	69	20,200	29,000
Macon	Mercer University	Hom	20	341	55,304	400,000
Do	Wesleyan Female College	Muj	12	193	177,638	80,000
Oxford	Emory College	Hom	14	234	36,938	311,711
Rome	Shorter College	Muj	13	218	89,500	....
IDAHO.						
Caldwell	College of Idaho	Mix	10	56	15,382	26,000
ILLINOIS.						
Abingdon	Hedding College	Mix	8	50	12,404	196,449
Aledo	William and Vashti College	Mix	8	60	19,500	128,000
Bloomington	Illinois Wesleyan University	Mix	22	322	79,327	369,126
Bourbonnais	St. Viator College	Hom	19	150	120,000	....
Carlinville	Blackburn University	Mix	8	33	10,275	107,000
Carthage	Carthage College	Mix	8	73	22,149	248,333
Chicago	De Paul University	Mix	81	672	....	....
Do	Lewis Institute	Mix	26	328	163,610	1,180,000
Do	Loyola University	Hom	129	603	....	....
Decatur	James Millikin University	Mix	66	318	100,843	220,605
Eureka	Eureka College	Mix	16	95	26,475	177,975
Ewing	Ewing College	Mix	7	11	10,706	10,000
Galesburg	Knox College	Mix	22	325	154,467	413,966
Do	Lombard College	Mix	17	154	36,834	231,000
Greenville	Greenville College	Mix	6	94	29,981	10,000
Jacksonville	Illinois College	Mix	12	131	50,712	386,717
Do	Illinois Woman's College	Muj	13	166	98,327	104,182
Knoxville	St. Mary's School	Muj	8	51	45,720	6,000
Lake Forest	Lake Forest College	Mix	20	239	225,966	790,022
Lebanon	McKendree College	Mix	6	73	30,028	128,180
Monmouth	Monmouth College	Mix	16	222	46,996	282,977
Mount Carroll	Frances Shimer School	Muj	7	35	51,676	80,000
Naperville	Northwestern College	Mix	9	157	36,360	234,776
Quincy	St. Francis Solanus College	Hom	8	25	40,567	....
Rockford	Rockford College	Muj	27	189	79,779	186,042
Rock Island	Augustana College	Mix	17	229	82,267	432,121
Upper Alton	Shurtleff College	Mix	8	56	19,976	177,538
Wheaton	Wheaton College	Mix	12	81	74,863	200,138

TABLA 5.—*Colegios y universidades que no se han incluído en las listas precedentes y que garantizan a la Oficina de Educación 14 unidades por lo menos como requisitos de ingreso para el curso de colegio*—Continuación.

Ciudades.	Instituciones.	Para hombres, para mujeres o mixtas.	Facultad colegiada y profesional.	Colegiales, graduados y profesionales.	Ingresos.	Dotación.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
INDIANA.						
Collegeville	St. Joseph's College	Hom.	9	118	$144,009	$100,000
Crawfordsville	Wabash College	Hom.	24	320	50,733	754,727
Earlham	Earlham College	Mix.	30	347	100,153	459,428
Franklin	Franklin College	Mix.	14	176	58,828	240,000
Goshen	Goshen College	Mix.	13	78	48,680	60,000
Greencastle	De Pauw University	Mix.	36	716	102,159	1,391,525
Hanover	Hanover College	Mix.	10	225	23,756	189,014
Indianapolis	Butler College	Mix.	19	410	48,562	394,954
Do	Indiana Central University	Mix.	23	77	....	....
Moores Hill	Moores Hill College	Mix.	10	69	16,556	70,000
Notre Dame	St. Mary's College and Academy.	Muj.	18	145	....	....
St. Meinrad	St. Meinrad College	Hom.	17	170	30,300	....
Upland	Taylor University	Mix.	9	95	32,952	....
IOWA.						
Cedar Falls	Iowa State Teachers College	Mix.	126	1,657	322,067	....
Cedar Rapids	Coe College	Mix.	21	263	55,193	710,000
Clinton	Wartburg College	Hom.	9	32	19,969	3,802
Decorah	Luther College	Hom.	15	130	34,974	278,982
Des Moines	Des Moines College	Mix.	12	203	46,160	150,000
Do	Drake University	Mix.	50	854	186,530	797,866
Dubuque	Dubuque College	Hom.	18	157	204,400	150,000
Fairfield	Parsons College	Mix.	12	113	27,570	236,491
Fayette	Upper Iowa University	Mix.	11	149	35,019	210,000
Grinnell	Grinnell College	Mix.	52	502	135,348	1,301,469
Hopkinton	Lenox College	Mix.	14	38	16,002	165,523
Indianola	Simpson College	Mix.	16	272	41,424	256,119
Iowa Falls	Ellsworth College	Mix.	15	79	28,176	....
Mount Pleasant	Iowa Wesleyan College	Hix.	15	195	28,082	258,150
Mount Vernon	Cornell College	Mix.	24	379	112,118	629,428
Oskaloosa	Penn College	Mix.	14	141	33,410	220,000
Pella	Central University of Iowa	Mix.	10	73	19,192	101,299
Sioux City	Morningside College	Mix.	31	286	54,879	400,000
Storm Lake	Buena Vista College	Mix.	11	54	18,396	25,00
Tabor	Tabor College	Mix.	7	19	7,766	27,000
Toledo	Leander Clark College	Mix.	12	77	29,509	....
University Park	Central Holiness University	Mix.	18	46	28,189	....
KANSAS.						
Atchison	Midland College	Mix.	11	70	23,600	85,000
Baldwin	Baker University	Mix.	14	319	46,463	237,686
Emporia	College of Emporia	Mix.	17	163	36,549	112,000
Highland	Highland College	Mix.	7	35	4,943	40,000
Holton	Campbell College	Mix.	7	29	14,630	....
Lindsborg	Bethany College	Mix.	13	97	93,176	77,768
McPherson	McPherson College	Mix.	14	53	16,007	30,000
Ottawa	Ottawa University	Mix.	12	159	28,467	231,341
St. Marys	Saint Mary's College	Hom.	20	64	....	....
Salina	Kansas Wesleyan University	Mix.	6	124	16,969	71,500
Sterling	Cooper College	Mix.	11	107	16,543	115,814
Topeka	Washburn College	Mix.	54	408	74,188	363,611
Wichita	Fairmount College	Mix.	15	165	22,770	114,998
Do	Friends University	Mix.	15	283	21,790	177,341
Winfield	Southwestern College	Mix.	10	251	17,929	130,000
KENTUCKY.						
Berea	Berea College	Mix.	8	104	249,845	1,182,294
Bowling Green	Ogden College	Hom.	5	36	8,750	200,000
Danville	Central Unversity of Kentucky.	Hom.	12	95	34,684	508,000
Georgetown	Georgetown College	Mix.	11	180	43,102	267,918
Glasgow	Liberty College	Muj.	8	20	5,000	....

TABLA 5.—*Colegios y universidades que no se han incluído en las listas precedentes y que garantizan a la Oficina de Educación 14 unidades por lo menos como requisitos de ingreso para el curso de colegio*—Continuación.

Ciudades.	Instituciones.	Para hombres, para mujeres o mixtas.	Facultad colegiada y profesional.	Colegiales, graduados y profesionales.	Ingresos.	Dotación.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
KENTUCKY—continued.						
Hopkinsville	Bethel Female College	Muj	2	15	$10,000	....
Lexington	Transylvania College	Muj	7	30	42,000	....
Do	Hamilton College	Mix	31	233	30,264	$337,298
Louisville	University of Louisville	Mix	123	492	79,250	....
Russellville	Bethel College	Hom	4	22	12,490	63,800
St. Mary	St. Mary's College	Hom	6	22	....	....
Winchester	Kentucky Wesleyan College	Mix	7	50	25,021	82,194
LOUISIANA.						
Clinton	Silliman Collegiate Institute	Muj	6	75	19,100	25,000
Mansfield	Mansfield Female College	Muj	4	29	15,650	....
New Orleans	Loyola University	Hom	19	139	....	....
Do	New Orleans University (para gente de color).	Mix	8	10	19,603	....
MAINE.						
Brunswick	Bowdoin College	Hom	86	422	147,808	2,310,829
Lewiston	Bates College	Mix	30	463	80,827	734,664
Van Buren	Van Buren College	Hom	5	40	49,000	....
Waterville	Colby College	Mix	26	410	87,742	450,663
MARYLAND.						
Annapolis	St. John's College	Hom	12	122	87,500	....
Baltimore	Loyola College	Hom	7	50	40,869	10,970
Do	Morgan College (para gente de color).	Mix	6	30	30,962	56,190
Do	Mount St. Joseph's College	Hom	8	25	23,000	....
Chestertown	Washington College	Mix	7	82	42,541	....
Ellicott City	Rock Hill College	Hom	10	50	....	....
Emmitsburg	Mount St. Mary's College	Hom	23	161	....	....
Frederick	Hood College	Muj	9	90	87,267	40,000
Westminster	Western Maryland College	Mix	18	172	51,726	80,000
MASSACHUSETTS.						
Amherst	Amherst College	Hom	44	416	227,836	2,776,452
Boston	Boston University	Mix	170	1,827	218,374	1,091,007
Norton	Wheaton College	Muj	22	163	182,924	896,310
Wellesley	Wellesley College	Muj	142	1,391	699,972	2,056,265
Williamstown	Williams College	Hom	54	495	250,979	1,683,810
Worcester	College of the Holy Cross	Hom	30	536	137,595	....
MICHIGAN.						
Adrian	Adrian College	Mix	20	100	26,880	....
Albion	Albion College	Mix	17	366	53,507	465,000
Alma	Alma College	Mix	18	147	47,919	400,389
Detroit	University of Detroit	Hom	38	143	....	....
Hillsdale	Hillsdale College	Mix	13	277	31,748	315,069
Holland	Hope College	Mix	18	179	42,390	....
Kalamazoo	Kalamazoo College	Mix	15	233	45,675	538,978
Olivet	Olivet College	Mix	25	224	37,228	112,382
MINNESOTA.						
Albert Lea	Albert Lea College	Muj	10	14	22,836	60,066
Collegeville	St. John's University	Hom	39	108	71,145	....
Minneapolis	Augsburg Seminary	Hom	15	67	16,348	31,930
Northfield	Carleton College	Mix	30	399	128,589	842,271
Do	St. Olaf College	Mix	17	833	93,433	275,98
St. Paul	Hamline University	Mix	23	381	57,606	475,588
Do	Macalester College	Mix	20	258	55,582	308,296
St. Peter	Gustavus Adolphus College	Mix	13	125	29,425	270,000
Winona	College of Saint Teresa	Muj	30	50	71,500	....

TABLA 5.—*Colegios y universidades que no se han incluído en las listas precedentes y que garantizan a la Oficina de Educación 14 unidades por lo menos como requisitos de ingreso para el curso de colegio*—Continuación.

Ciudades.	Instituciones.	Para hombres, para mujeres o mixtas.	Facultad colegiada y profesional.	Colegiales, graduados y profesionales.	Ingresos.	Dotación.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
MISSISSIPPI.						
Brookhaven	Whitworth College for Women	Muj	8	18	....	....
Clinton	Mississippi College	Hom	12	323	$61,293	$125,000
Columbus	Mississippi Industrial Institute and College.	Muj	49	679	155,657	....
Grenada	Grenada College	Muj	7	47	27,250	....
Jackson	Millsaps College	Mix	10	158	39,049	447,297
Meridian	Meridian College	Mix	11	255	....	....
MISSOURI.						
Albany	Palmer College	Mix	8	22	10,555	50,000
Cameron	Missouri Wesleyan College	Mix	11	74	14,419	143,000
Canton	Christian University	Mix	10	52	15,350	200,000
Columbia	Stephens College	Muj	10	38	35,500	36,000
Fayette	Central College	Mix	11	145	45,354	....
Fulton	Synodical College for Girls	Muj	7	24	39,837	....
Do	Westminster College	Hom	10	90	27,273	222,555
Lexington	Central Female College	Muj	7	36	32,582	57,824
Do	Lexington College for Young Women.	Muj	16	124	22,750	20,000
Liberty	William Jewell College	Hom	26	245	84,047	853,085
Marshall	Missouri Valley College	Mix	12	90	23,345	192,688
Mexico	Hardin College	Muj	10	58	42,532	86,750
Morrisville	Scarritt-Morrisville College	Mix	8	108	21,783	50,000
Parkville	Park College	Mix	13	254	82,146	453,876
St. Charles	Lindenwood College for Women.	Muj	7	28	26,375	22,000
St. Louis	Christian Brothers College	Hom	20	41	23,114	....
Springfield	Drury College	Mix	16	255	51,550	800,000
Tarkio	Tarkio College	Mix	11	116	46,923	199,084
Warrenton	Central Wesleyan College	Mix	9	115	21,942	190,000
NEBRASKA.						
Bellevue	Bellevue College	Mix	20	79	36,155	15,094
Bethany	Cotner University	Mix	33	405	64,900	....
College View	Union College	Mix	9	97	47,585	....
Crete	Doane College	Mix	14	125	31,059	279,806
Hastings	Hastings College	Mix	7	92	24,970	201,142
Omaha	Creighton University	Mix	105	668	252,662	2,750,000
Do	University of Omaha	Mix	23	82	13,500	....
University Place	Nebraska Wesleyan University.	Mix	19	413	54,051	285,656
York	York College	Mix	15	34	13,319	74,000
NEW JERSEY.						
Convent Station	College of St. Elizabeth	Muj	16	102	....	....
Jersey City	St. Peter's College	Hom	8	70	20,000	....
Kenilworth	Upsala College	Mix	6	13	13,220	....
New Brunswick	Rutgers College	Hom	62	420	404,440	855,215
South Orange	Seton Hall College	Hom	9	123	....	....
NEW YORK.						
Albany	New York State College for Teachers.	Mix	35	491	107,500	....
Alfred	Alfred University	Mix	24	165	41,023	391,413
Annandale	St. Stephen's College	Mix	11	44	43,802	98,000
Aurora	Wells College	Muj	33	197	145,329	364,200
Brooklyn	Adelphi College	Mix	34	424	45,381	156,566
Do	College of St. Francis Xavier	Hom	10	50	12,237	42,700
Buffalo	Canisius College	Hom	11	116	18,796	....
Canton	St. Lawrence University	Mix	34	478	132,133	749,571
Clinton	Hamilton College	Hom	20	200	119,871	1,150,000
Elmira	Elmira College	Muj	20	234	73,973	119,780
Geneva	Hobart College	Mix	24	200	77,322	750,724
Hamilton	Colgate University	Hom	46	449	159,383	1,765,000
Keuka	Keuka College	Mix	8	29	37,102	47,546

TABLA 5.—*Colegios y universidades que no se han incluído en las listas precedentes y que garantizan a la Oficina de Educación 14 unidades por lo menos como requisitos de ingreso para el curso de colegio*—Continuación.

Ciudades.	Instituciones.	Para hombres, para mujeres o mixtas.	Facultad colegiada y profesional.	Colegiales, graduados y profesionales.	Ingresos.	Dotación.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
NEW YORK—continued.						
New Rochelle	College of New Rochelle	Muj	22	157	$121,976	....
New York	College of the City of New York.	Hom.	121	1,401	448,386	....
Do	Fordham University	Hom.	122	857	240,509	985,048
D.	Hunter College of the City of New York.	Muj	137	1,686	322,868	....
Do	Manhattan College	Hom.	15	92	45,397	....
Niagara	Niagara University	Hom.	12	159	26,600	....
Poughkeepsie	Vassar College	Muj	105	1,077	1,003,082	1,517,257
Rochester	University of Rochester	Mix	89	439	128,154	1,666,577
St. Bonaventure	S. Bonaventure's College	Hom.	21	135	30,176	27,000
Schenectady	Union University	Hom.	36	381	123,016	835,121
Syracuse	Syracuse University	Mix	277	2,795	429,094	1,902,100
NORTH CAROLINA.						
Charlotte	Biddle University (para gente de color).	Hom.	11	134	26,460	126,026
Davidson	Davidson College	Hom.	15	335	54,177	....
Durham	Trinity College	Mix	33	450	104,806	1,391,849
Elon College	Elon College	Mix	15	293	60,693	80,500
Greensboro	Greensboro College for Women.	Muj	8	50	37,531	105,500
Raleigh	Meredith College	Muj	18	249	78,532	112,074
Do	Shaw University (para gente de color).	Mix	30	117	53,677	38,176
Red Springs	Southern Presbyterian College.	Muj	11	98	47,230	....
Wake Forest	Wake Forest College	Hom.	39	457	50,300	455,000
Winston-Salem	Salem Academy and College	Muj	13	119	112,367	170,208
NORTH DAKOTA.						
Fargo	Fargo College	Mix	15	157	28,206	....
Jamestown	Jamestown College	Mix	23	54	88,491	108,000
University	Wesley College	Mix	2	37	20,272	120,000
OHIO.						
Akron	Municipal University of Akron.	Mix	18	198	47,686	91,000
Alliance	Mount Union College	Mix	20	221	60,044	307,684
Ashland	Ashland College	Mix	6	57	....	....
Berea	Baldwin-Wallace College	Mix	17	172	111,593	468,537
Bluffton	Bluffton College	Mix	11	45	25,770	31,080
Cedarville	Cedarville College	Mix	7	47	7,453	81,143
Cincinnati	St. Xavier College	Hom.	9	56	25,747	....
Cleveland	St. Ignatius College	Hom.	9	58	51,862	130,712
I	Western Reserve University	Mix	223	1,327	265,657	3,426,081
Columbus	Capital University	Hom.	16	108	19,928	40,569
Dayton	St. Mary College	Hom.	13	35	....	....
Defiance	Defiance College	Mix	14	218	32,271	273,977
Delaware	Ohio Wesleyan University	Mix	47	930	120,174	1,011,962
Findlay	Findlay College	Mix	14	52	29,955	110,000
Gambier	Kenyon College	Hom.	18	133	66,841	509,002
Granville	Denison University	Mix	30	476	111,313	755,000
Hiram	Hiram College	Mix	22	207	40,099	272,476
Lebanon	Lebanon University	Mix	8	26	5,200	....
Marietta	Marietta College	Mix	15	162	42,940	553,806
New Athens	Franklin College	Mix	9	78	9,700	45,000
New Concord	Muskingum College	Mix	10	259	53,855	120,000
Oberlin	Oberlin College	Mix	61	1,097	388,195	2,336,076
Oxford	Oxford College for Women	Muj	12	151	60,030	....
Do	Western College for Women	Muj	27	241	96,393	220,523
Painesville	Lake Erie College	Muj	24	110	60,300	220,470
Rio Grande	Rio Grande College	Mix	4	32	9,100	80,000
Springfield	Wittenburg College	Mix	21	415	93,600	523,000
Tiffin	Heidelberg University	Mix	27	192	66,032	336,000
Toledo	St. John's University	Hom.	24	55	16,400	8,500
Do	Toledo University	Mix	82	219	20,444	....
Westerville	Otterbein University	Mix	22	218	51,553	250,000
Wooster	College of Wooster	Mix	42	443	142,980	1,144,425
Yellow Springs	Antioch College	Mix	16	53	10,622	113,158

TABLA 5.—*Colegios y universidades que no se han incluído en las listas precedentes y que garantizan a la Oficina de Educación 14 unidades por lo menos como requisitos de ingreso para el curso de colegio*—Continuación.

Ciudades.	Instituciones.	Para hombres, para mujeres o mixtas.	Facultad colegiada y profesional.	Colegiales, graduados y profesionales.	Ingresos.	Dotación.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
OKLAHOMA.						
Guthrie	Methodist University of Oklahoma.	Mix	9	71	$18,307	$75,000
Kingfisher	Kingfisher College	Mix	8	67	19,410	149,912
OREGON.						
Albany	Albany College	Mix	10	37	18,490	200,818
Forest Grove	Pacific University	Mix	16	86	27,768	237,926
McMinnville	McMinnville College	Mix	10	89	28,176	60,349
Newberg	Pacific College	Mix	12	43	19,500	65,000
Portland	Reed College	Mix	20	184	88,383	3,000,000
Salem	Willamette University	Mix	44	319	75,000	500,000
PENNSYLVANIA.						
Allentown	Allentown College for Women.	Muj	12	127	12,728	....
Do	Muhlenberg College	Hom	14	173	52,080	289,138
Annville	Lebanon Valley College	Mix	11	164	59,287	57,390
Beatty	St. Vincent College	Hom	10	126	....	....
Beaver Falls	Geneva College	Mix	15	136	8,101	204,000
Bethlehem	Moravian College	Hom	8	51	45,738	115,000
Do	Moravian Seminary and College for Women.	Muj	6	65	48,000	83,000
Carlisle	Dickinson College	Mix	25	361	62,071	778,868
Chambersburg	Wilson College	Muj	30	163	62,510	71,475
Chester	Pennsylvania Military College.	Hom	15	90	....	....
Collegeville	Ursinus College	Mix	17	176	66,946	202,100
Easton	Lafayette College	Hom	50	580	131,856	621,986
Gettysburg	Pennsylvania College	Mix	23	287	70,583	417,843
Greenville	Thiel College	Mix	9	76	44,619	61,000
Grove City	Grove City College	Mix	18	221	128,918	81,802
Haverford	Haverford College	Hom	22	176	165,245	1,976,948
Huntingdon	Juniata College	Mix	14	110	58,539	188,256
Lancaster	Franklin and Marshall College.	Hom	17	302	39,894	384,466
Lewiston	Bucknell University	Mix	27	431	117,582	....
Lincoln University	Lincoln University (para gente de color).	Hom	12	194	50,052	649,784
Meadville	Allegheny College	Mix	24	418	94,910	745,497
Myerstown	Albright College	Mix	10	88	44,878	....
New Wilmington	Westminster College	Mix	16	171	69,914	435,390
Philadelphia	La Salle College	Hom	17	60	....	....
Do	Temple University	Mix	188	1,402	182,959	....
Pittsburgh	Duquesne College of the Holy Ghost.	Hom	28	68	35,000	....
Do	Pennsylvania College for Women.	Muj	19	76	64,005	40,000
Do	University of Pittsburg	Mix	229	2,512	437,167	522,969
Selinsgrove	Susquehanna University	Mix	14	109	43,150	65,000
Swarthmore	Swarthmore College	Mix	44	420	289,689	1,615,164
Villanova	Villanova College	Hom	23	128	113,449	....
Washington	Washington and Jefferson College.	Hom	18	268	62,104	687,599
Waynesburg	Waynesburg College	Mix	10	70	20,665	86,059
RHODE ISLAND.						
Providence	Brown University	Mix	84	944	250,629	4,276,986
SOUTH CAROLINA.						
Columbia	Benedict College (para gente de color).	Mix	16	141	31,200	140,000
Greenwood	Lander College	Muj	10	164	39,681	6,100
Orangeburg	Claflin University (para gente de color).	Mix	5	32	55,110	40,000
Spartanburg	Converse College	Muj	25	132	77,138	69,251
Do	Wofford College	Hom	15	334	47,675	188,154

TABLA 5.—*Colegios y universidades que no se han incluído en las listas precedentes y que garantizan a la Oficina de Educación 14 unidades por lo menos como requisitos de ingreso para el curso de colegio*—Continuación.

Ciudades.	Instituciones.	Para hombres, para mujeres o mixtas.	Facultad colegiada y profesional.	Colegiales, graduados y profesionales.	Ingresos.	Dotación.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SOUTH DAKOTA.						
Huron	Huron College	Mix	18	90	$57,785	$463,968
Mitchell	Dakota Wesleyan University	Mix	22	200	44,403	....
Redfield	Redfield College	Mix	6	24	11,433	....
Sioux Falls	Sioux Falls College	Mix	18	32	20,400	....
Yankton	Yankton College	Mix	16	127	66,679	231,830
TENNESSEE.						
Bristol	King College	Hom	7	56	14,700	25,000
Chattanooga	University of Chattanooga	Mix	13	134	55,006	400,000
Clarksville	Southwestern Presbyterian University.	Hom	10	78	8,225	300,000
Greeneville	Tusculum College	Mix	6	44	50,217	176,281
Jackson	Union University	Mix	9	90	18,920	....
Jefferson City	Carson and Newman College	Mix	7	119	17,169	73,000
Knoxville	Knoxville College (para gente de color).	Mix	10	30	50,254	10,000
Lebanon	Cumberland University	Mix	9	253	23,300	110,000
Maryville	Maryville College	Mix	12	212	84,539	478,707
Memphis	Christian Brothers College	Hom	12	90	....	....
Milligan	Milligan College	Mix	9	62	61,125	12,500
Murfreesboro	Tennessee College	Muj	8	63	43,381	4,000
Nashville	Fisk University (para gente de color).	Mix	5	184	121,308	150,973
Sewanee	University of the South	Hom	25	154	122,734	390,365
Washington College	Washington College	Mix	6	20	13,000	100,000
TEXAS.						
Abilene	Simmons College	Mix	12	240	81,600	100,000
Belton	Baylor College for Women	Muj	12	118	75,555	....
Brownwood	Howard Payne College	Mix	8	61	35,000	....
Fort Worth	Texas Christian University	Mix	39	112	63,043	25,000
Georgetown	Southwestern University	Mix	44	505	161,410	....
Houston	Rice Institute	Mix	29	252	529,000	10,000,000
San Antonio	St. Louis College	Hom	8	28	30,000	....
Sherman	Austin College	Hom	9	141	39,500	200,000
Tehuacana	Westminster College	Mix	7	62	9,360	6,000
Waco	Baylor University	Mix	22	558	152,561	222,979
Waxahachie	Trinity University	Mix	11	230	56,771	58,768
VERMONT.						
Middlebury	Middlebury College	Mix	29	340	94,090	577,784
Northfield	Norwich University	Hom	15	147	52,050	114,636
Winooski	St. Michael's College	Hom	6	26	26,000	....
VIRGINIA.						
Abingdon	Martha Washington College	Muj	9	63	41,294	....
Do	Stonewall Jackson Institute	Muj	6	79	18,750	....
Ashland	Randolph-Macon College	Hom	11	187	35,613	321,303
Bridgewater	Bridgewater College	Mix	7	54	25,128	18,641
Bristol	Virginia Intermont College	Muj	5	48	33,622	....
Emory	Emory and Henry College	Mix	17	135	....	....
Hampden-Sidney	Hampden-Sidney College	Hom	9	115	25,000	196,000
Hollins	Hollins College	Muj	18	129	127,393	....
Lexington	Washington and Lee University.	Hom	27	449	101,272	....
Manassas	Eastern College	Mix	9	78	31,350	20,000
Richmond	Richmond College	Mix	31	454	173,362	935,000
Do	Virginia Union University (para gente de color).	Hom	9	89	44,422	88,000
Roanoke	Virginia College	Muj	5	63	50,000	....
Salem	Roanoke College	Hom	12	93	42,773	143,440
Do	Elizabeth College	Muj	12	17	....	....
Sweet Briar	Sweet Briar College	Muj	26	74	152,764	....

TABLA 5.—*Colegios y universidades que no se han incluído en las listas precedentes y que garantizan a la Oficina de Educación 14 unidades por lo menos como requisitos de ingreso para el curso de colegio*—Continuación.

Ciudades.	Instituciones.	Para hombres, para mujeres o mixtas.	Facultad colegiada y profesional.	Colegiales, graduados y profesionales.	Ingresos.	Dotación.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
WASHINGTON.						
Spokane	Gonzaga University	Hom	30	177		
Do	Whitworth College	Mix	10	101	$22,916	$108,000
Tacoma	College of Puget Sound	Mix	28	106	9,855	
Walla Walla	Whitman College	Mix	28	250	59,031	538,502
WEST VIRGINIA.						
Bethany	Bethany College	Mix	23	216	47,527	410,000
Buckhannon	West Virginia Wesleyan College.	Mix	8	128	118,221	117,285
Elkins	Davis and Elkins College	Mix	8	25	21,917	100,000
WISCONSIN.						
Appleton	Lawrence College	Mix	31	448	166,587	893,000
Beloit	Beloit College	Mix	41	395	132,084	1,266,966
Milton	Milton College	Mix	11	57	20,087	137,00
Milwaukee	Marquette University	Hom	237	775	92,669	
Do	Milwaukee-Downer College	Muj	20	192	133,279	215,422
Prairie du Chien	Campion College	Hom	14	56	87,607	15,000
Ripon	Ripon College	Mix	19	164	60,042	252,036
Sinsinawa	St. Clara College and Academy	Muj	19	68	30,600	
Waukesha	Carroll College	Mix	25	221	26,795	287,877

TABLA 6.—*Colegios de medicina clasificados en rango A por el Consejo de Educación Médica de la Asociación Americana de Medicina.*

Instituciones.	Facultad.	Estudiantes.	Instrucción.	Dotación.
Alabama:				
University of Alabama, School of Medicine—Mobile	55	105	$150	(¹)
California:				
Leland Stanford Junior University, School of Medicine—San Francisco	50	75	150	(¹)
University of California, School of Medicine—San Francisco	35	122	150	$114,650
Colorado:				
University of Colorado, School of Medicine—Boulder-Denver	78	59	(²)	(¹)
Connecticut:				
Yale Medical School—New Haven	57	49	150	760,058
District of Columbia:				
Georgetown University, School of Medicine—Washington	99	99	150	5,000
George Washington University, Medical School—Washington	74	175	150	37,185
Howard University School of Medicine—Washington	40	110	100	15,000
Georgia:				
Atlanta Medical College [3]—Atlanta	103	400	150	(¹)
University of Georgia, Medical Department—Augusta	47	58	125	(¹)
Illinois:				
Northwestern University Medical School—Chicago	139	370	175	565,700
Rush Medical College (University of Chicago)—Chicago	288	462	185	(¹)
University of Illinois, College of Medicine—Chicago	146	451	155	0
Indiana:				
Indiana University, School of Medicine—Bloomington-Indianapolis	130	133	130	(¹)
Iowa:				
State University of Iowa, College of Medicine—Iowa City	42	100	50	0
State University of Iowa, College of Homeopathic Medicine—Iowa City	7	6	50	0
Kansas:				
University of Kansas, School of Medicine—Lawrence-Rosedale	65	110	(⁴)	(¹)
Kentucky:				
University of Louisville, Medical Department—Louisville	94	274	168	(¹)

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[1] Carecemos de información.
[2] $75 para los residentes en la universidad y $100 para los residentes fuera de ella.
[3] En la actualidad es escuela de medicina de la universidad Emory.
[4] $25 durante los dos primeros años y $100 durante los dos últimos del curso de medicina.

Tabla 4.—Colegios de medicina clasificados en rango A por el Consejo de Educación Médica de la Asociación Americana de Medicina—Continuación.

Instituciones.	Facultad.	Estudiantes.	Instrucción.	Dotación.
Louisiana:				
Tulane University of Louisiana, School of Medicine—New Orleans	115	338	$235	$1,000,000
Maine:				
Medical School of Maine—Brunswick-Portland	66	67	180	242,255
Maryland:				
College of Physicians and Surgeons—Baltimore	49	164	165	0
Johns Hopkins University, Medical Department—Baltimore	134	380	240	464,902
University of Maryland, School of Medicine—Baltimore	136	472	165	(1)
Massachusetts:				
Boston University, School of Medicine—Boston	58	121	125	170,000
Medical School of Harvard University—Boston	307	308	225	4,081,732
Tufts College Medical School—Boston	57	275	155	45,000
Michigan:				
Detroit College of Medicine and Surgery—Detroit	160	240	116	70,000
University of Michigan, Department of Medicine and Surgery—Ann Arbor	75	288	87,67	1,000,600
University of Michigan, Homeopathic Medical College—Ann Arbor	25	80	55,65	(1)
Minnesota:				
University of Minnesota Medical School—Minneapolis	81	160	150	0
Mississippi:				
University of Mississippi, Department of Medicine [2]—Oxford	14	35	100	(1)
Missouri:				
St. Louis University, School of Medicine—St. Louis	80	241	140	0
University of Missouri, School of Medicine [2]—Columbia	16	78	0	0
Washington University Medical School—St. Louis	79	71	150	2,250,000
Nebraska:				
University of Nebraska, College of Medicine—Omaha	60	87	115	0
New Hampshire:				
Dartmouth Medical School [2]—Hanover	11	23	140	(1)
New York:				
Albany Medical College, Albany	103	255	160	50,966
Columbia University, College of Physicians and Surgeons—New York City	209	344	285	1,572,305
Cornell University Medical College—New York City	114	108	180	4,478,177
Fordham University, School of Medicine—New York City	95	254	200	(1)
Long Island College Hospital—New York City	113	360	190	(1)
Syracuse University, College of Medicine—Syracuse	73	96	175	50,000
University and Bellevue Hospital Medical College—New York City	125	233	200	270,000
University of Buffalo, Medical Department—Buffalo	100	286	125	11,500
North Carolina:				
University of North Carolina, School of Medicine [2]—Chapel Hill	20	60	70	(1)
Wake Forest College, School of Medicine [2]—Wake Forest	19	25	50	(1)
North Dakota:				
University of North Dakota, School of Medicine [2]—University	10	14	50	0
Ohio:				
Western Reserve University, School of Medicine—Cleveland	58	168	150	1,490,637
Medical College of the University of Cincinnati—Cincinnati	137	60	180	115,000
Ohio State University, College of Medicine—Columbus	76	284	150	0
Oregon:				
University of Oregon, Department of Medicine—Portland	68	79	180	0
Pennsylvania:				
Hahnemann Medical College and Hospital—Philadelphia	82	96	150	100,200
Jefferson Medical College—Philadelphia	158	704	200	400,000
Medico-Chirurgical College of Philadelphia—Philadelphia	114	384	150	11,000
University of Pennsylvania, School of Medicine—Philadelphia	174	206	200	520,467
University of Pittsburgh, School of Medicine—Pittsburgh	95	126	220	0
Woman's Medical College of Pennsylvania—Philadelphia	59	98	175	354,506
South Dakota:				
University of South Dakota, College of Medicine [2]—Vermilion	16	22	60	(1)
Tennessee:				
Vanderbilt University, Medical Department—Nashville	67	204	150	500,325
University of Tennessee, College of Medicine—Memphis	104	321	131	400,000
Texas:				
University of Texas, Department of Medicine—Galveston	26	172	0	0
Utah:				
University of Utah, School of Medicine [2]—Salt Lake City	12	63	55	0
Vermont:				
University of Vermont, College of Medicine—Burlington	46	118	125	(3)
Virginia:				
Medical College of Virginia—Richmond	126	424	150	(1)
University of Virginia, Department of Medicine—Charlottesville	35	104	100	
Wisconsin:				
Marquette University, School of Medicine—Milwaukee	11	188	170	0
University of Wisconsin, Medical School [2]—Madison	23	83	(4)	(1)

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[1] Carecemos de información.

[2] Se dan solamente los dos primeros años del curso de medicina.

[3] $25 los dos primeros años y $100 los dos últimos del curso de medicina.

[4] $70 para los estudiantes no residentes en la universidad.

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DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR
BUREAU OF EDUCATION

BULLETIN, 1918, No. 17

HISTORY OF PUBLIC SCHOOL EDUCATION IN ARIZONA

By STEPHEN B. WEEKS
BUREAU OF EDUCATION

WASHINGTON
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1918

TABLA 5.—*Colegios y universidades que no se han incluído en las listas precedentes y que garantizan a la Oficina de Educación 14 unidades por lo menos como requisitos de ingreso para el curso de colegio*—Continuación.

Ciudades.	Instituciones.	Para hombres, para mujeres o mixtas.	Facultad colegiada y profesional.	Colegiales, graduados y profesionales.	Ingresos.	Dotación.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SOUTH DAKOTA.						
Huron	Huron College	Mix	18	90	$57,785	$463,953
Mitchell	Dakota Wesleyan University	Mix	22	200	44,403	....
Redfield	Redfield College	Mix	6	24	11,433	....
Sioux Falls	Sioux Falls College	Mix	18	32	20,400	....
Yankton	Yankton College	Mix	16	127	66,679	231,830
TENNESSEE.						
Bristol	King College	Hom	7	56	14,700	25,000
Chattanooga	University of Chattanooga	Mix	13	134	55,006	400,000
Clarksville	Southwestern Presbyterian University.	Hom	10	78	8,225	300,000
Greeneville	Tusculum College	Mix	6	44	59,217	176,281
Jackson	Union University	Mix	9	90	18,920	....
Jefferson City	Carson and Newman College	Mix	7	119	17,169	73,000
Knoxville	Knoxville College (para gente de color).	Mix	10	30	50,254	10,000
Lebanon	Cumberland University	Mix	9	253	23,300	110,000
Maryville	Maryville College	Mix	12	212	84,539	478,707
Memphis	Christian Brothers College	Hom	12	90	....	....
Milligan	Milligan College	Mix	9	62	61,125	12,500
Murfreesboro	Tennessee College	Muj	8	62	43,381	4,000
Nashville	Fisk University (para gente de color).	Mix	5	184	121,308	150,978
Sewanee	University of the South	Hom	25	154	122,734	390,365
Washington College	Washington College	Mix	6	20	13,000	100,000
TEXAS.						
Abilene	Simmons College	Mix	12	240	81,600	100,000
Belton	Baylor College for Women	Muj	12	118	75,555	....
Brownwood	Howard Payne College	Mix	8	61	35,000	....
Fort Worth	Texas Christian University	Mix	39	112	63,043	25,000
Georgetown	Southwestern University	Mix	44	505	161,410	....
Houston	Rice Institute	Mix	29	252	529,000	10,000,000
San Antonio	St. Louis College	Hom	8	28	30,000	....
Sherman	Austin College	Hom	9	141	39,500	200,000
Tehuacana	Westminster College	Mix	7	62	9,360	6,000
Waco	Baylor University	Mix	22	558	152,561	222,979
Waxahachie	Trinity University	Mix	11	230	56,771	58,768
VERMONT.						
Middlebury	Middlebury College	Mix	29	340	94,090	577,784
Northfield	Norwich University	Hom	15	147	52,050	114,636
Winooski	St. Michael's College	Hom	6	26	26,000	....
VIRGINIA.						
Abingdon	Martha Washington College	Muj	9	63	41,294	....
Do	Stonewall Jackson Institute	Muj	6	79	13,750	....
Ashland	Randolph-Macon College	Hom	11	187	35,613	321,303
Bridgewater	Bridgewater College	Mix	7	54	25,128	18,641
Bristol	Virginia Intermont College	Muj	5	48	33,622	....
Emory	Emory and Henry College	Mix	17	135	....	....
Hampden-Sidney	Hampden-Sidney College	Hom	9	115	25,000	196,000
Hollins	Hollins College	Muj	18	129	127,393	....
Lexington	Washington and Lee University.	Hom	27	449	101,272	....
Manassas	Eastern College	Mix	9	78	31,350	20,000
Richmond	Richmond College	Mix	31	454	173,362	935,000
Do	Virginia Union University (para gente de color).	Hom	9	89	44,422	88,000
Roanoke	Virginia College	Muj	5	63	50,000	....
Salem	Roanoke College	Hom	12	93	42,773	143,440
Do	Elizabeth College	Muj	12	17	....	....
Sweet Briar	Sweet Briar College	Muj	26	74	152,764	....

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HISTORY OF PUBLIC SCHOOL EDUCATION IN ARIZONA.

Chapter I.

THE SETTING FOR PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

The territory of the present State of Arizona is embraced within 31° 20′ and 37° north latitude and between 109° 02′ and 114° 45′ west longitude. It covers an area of 113,956 square miles, of which 146 miles are water surface. The part north of the Gila River came into the possession of the United States under the treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo in 1848, and that south of the Gila as a part of the Gadsden Purchase of 1854. Arizona was at first included in the Territory of New Mexico, and the census of 1860 gives to Arizona County, N. Mex., a total of 1,681 families, representing 6,482 free individuals.

Efforts made to draw the southern section of New Mexico within the boundaries of the Southern Confederacy were defeated, but perhaps hastened the act of February 24, 1863, under which that part of New Mexico west of 109° was organized as a separate Territory. In December of that year the officers that had been sent out to complete the Territorial organization entered the Territory and established the government with Prescott as its first capital.

For the purpose of this study it is hardly necessary to review the more than 300 years of exploration, including the "exploring entradas from the south and east," that preceded the American occupation. That period can not be characterized as one of settlement or growth. There were a few mission stations in the southern part of the Territory, founded mainly by missionaries who came up from old Mexico and organized religious centers (1687–1828) like San Xavier del Bac, gathered into their fold some of the less savage Indians, and taught them a little of the elements of Christianity and something of secular learning of the more practical kind—farming in particular. Under the influence of the padres the Indians brought large bodies of land into cultivation, sheep and cattle were introduced, comfortable houses were erected, and order and industry to some extent took the place of savagery and sloth.[1]

---

[1] Buehman, Estelle M.: Old Tucson (1911), p. 12.

When the Jesuits were expelled in 1767 the Franciscans took their place, but the missions declined and were finally abandoned in 1828 by order of the Mexican Government. The influence of their teachings was largely lost on the Indians as a race; for the converts remained largely pagan at heart, and the amount of secular learning, in the narrowed use of the term, acquired by them may be regarded as an entirely negligible quantity. Further than this the Spanish missionaries came in contact in the main only with the tribes of the south—the Papagoes and Pimas—sedentary, agricultural, and peaceful Indians; but from the time the Territory was first occupied by the United States down to its organization as a separate self-governing Territory and from that time down to 1874 its history was one of more or less continued Indian wars. Even as late as 1886 the menace was not entirely removed, for in that year occurred Geronimo's last outbreak. The country in the northeast was occupied by the brave and warlike Navajoes; the central and southern portions by the savage Apaches—brave, fierce, bloodthirsty, and cruel. For the first generation of its American existence the Arizona iliad of Indian horrors was almost unbroken. Indeed during the Civil War period, when the pressure of Confederate arms necessitated the withdrawal of Federal troops, the savage reigned supreme, and the lowest point in civilization since the American occupation was attained.

Prior to the American occupation all the inhabitants of this region were Mexicans and Indians; and all the educational institutions, general in character and purpose, proposed in the past for this country by the Spanish Government had failed of realization.

Thus early as 1777–1789 the founding of a missionary college, perhaps at El Paso, was ordered by the King and the Pope,[1] but nothing was accomplished. About the same time industrial education was proposed as a remedy for the ills of the country, but this, too, came to naught,[2] and while educational reforms were demanded by Pedro Bautista Pino, the New Mexican representative in the Spanish Cortes of 1812, his efforts were without results.[3]

The less ambitious educational undertakings at the missions, conducted and controlled by the missionaries who came up from Mexico, were a little more successful, but they were intended for the Indians only, and were later abandoned.

Hamilton, in his Resources of Arizona, says:

> After the abandonment of the missions, and up to the time of the Gadsden Purchase, there was not a school or educational establishment of any kind within the territory.

---

[1] Bancroft's New Mexico and Arizona, San Francisco, 1888, p. 274.

[2] Ibid., p. 278.

[3] Ibid., pp. 289, 304, 307.

There was, however, at least one such school in operation during the earlier years of American dominion, for Gov. Goodwin mentions it in his message to the first assembly in September, 1864. This was the mission of San Xavier del Bac, near Tucson.

McClintock states that a Catholic school was established at Tucson in 1866 under a teacher named Vincent, and that in 1870 the Sisters of St. Joseph organized a girls' school there and erected buildings.[1] Of this school for girls Hamilton says:

> The first regular educational establishment was opened by the Sisters of St. Joseph, in Tucson. For years this was the only school in the Territory, and from many isolated towns and settlements parents sent their children to the Academy of St. Joseph. Although the institution was under the control of the Catholic Church, and the instruction given partook somewhat of a religious character, yet no discrimination was shown.[2]

In view of these conditions, and with the exception of the two schools mentioned above, one of which was for Indians and the other for girls, in matters of education, the men who organized the Territory of Arizona at Navajo Springs in December, 1863, and began laying the foundations for an American public-school system, found among the white settlers of American origin a field practically unoccupied. What, then, was the origin and race of the white settlers and what were the conditions which the advocates of the American public school found in Arizona?

---

[1] McClintock, James H.: History of Arizona, II, 495.

[2] Hamilton, Patrick: Resources of Arizona, 3d ed., 1884, pp. 247–48.

There was another St. Joseph's Academy located near the military hospital of Camp Lowell, near Prescott. The building was begun March 19, 1868; finished May 6, 1870; opened June 6, 1870, with 33 pupils; number now in attendance, 210; the building was 120 by 60 feet.—*Arizona Miner, Nov. 18, 1824.*

Statistical view of the growth of Arizona's population, 1860–1910.

Years.	White.	Colored.	Total.	Per cent of increase.	Population per square mile.
1860	[1] 6,842				
1870	9,581	26	9,658		0.08
1880	35,160	[2] 5,280	40,440	319.75	.35
1890	55,734	[3] 32,509	88,243	118.20	.77
1900	92,903	[3] 30,028	122,931	39.31	1.08
1910	171,468	[3] 32,786	204,354	66.23	1.80

[1] For Arizona County, N. Mex., population not differentiated by color, race, or nativity.

[2] In 1880 this included only the civilized Indians.

[3] Includes Negroes, Indians, Chinese, Japanese.

Statistical view of the sources of Arizona's population, 1870–1910.

Born in—	1870	1880	1890	1900	1910
New York	481	1,740	1,755	2,324	3,082
Pennsylvania	275	814	1,023	1,672	2,818
Ohio	235	954	1,234	2,100	3,549
California	156	2,177	3,142	5,009	6,101
Missouri	121	921	1,781	3,187	5,206
Illinois	115	688	1,328	2,659	4,700
Texas	114	525	285	4,510	10,139
Kentucky	107	451	700	1,189	2,168
New Mexico	93	1,153	1,274	3,351	4,477
Indiana	69	373	661	1,248	2,289
Tennessee	63	314	579	783	1,578
Arkansas	32	328	441	814	1,542
Utah	1	1,354	2,836	3,152	2,679
Canada (British America)	112	571	732	1,827	1,269
Germany	379	1,110	2,121	1,247	1,846
Great Britain	686	2,312	2,601	3,255	5,836
Mexico	4,339	9,330	11,534	14,172	29,987

From these statistics it is evident that the majority of the people who came to settle in Arizona were from States where the public school was already established, and for that reason, since these settlers had already been indoctrinated with the public school idea, little opposition from them was to be expected. This was also clearly the case with the immigrants from Europe and from Canada. Those who might be expected to show indifference were the Mexican immigrants from old and New Mexico, but experience has since proved that this assumption was erroneous. It would appear that otherwise little opposition was to be expected except such as was founded on physical and financial conditions and on the very pertinent difficulty arising out of the scarcity of children. On this phase of the problem McClintock remarks:

> Schools were slow in coming to Arizona, probably because of the absence of children other than Mexican. Few of the pioneers brought families into the Territory. It is probable that most of the pioneers simply had an idea, like the first California adventurers, of "making their pile" and going "home." Upon the groundwork they laid, however, was established a more permanent civilization, within which schools were a necessity. The first Territorial legislature passed a school code, but there seems to have been only one school, a small private one in Prescott, and that maintained largely by private subscriptions.[1]

---

[1] McClintock, James H.: Arizona, II, 495.

Chapter II.

THE BEGINNING OF PUBLIC-SCHOOL LEGISLATION, 1864–1869.

For the purposes of this study the question of education prior to the time of the organization of Arizona into a separate Territory need not be further considered. This organization was effected under an act passed February 24, 1863, " to provide a temporary government for the Territory of Arizona, and for other purposes." But that was a time of Civil War in the East and of Indian war in the West; and it was not till December 27, 1863, that John N. Goodwin, of Maine, who had been appointed governor, together with the other appointive officers, entered the Territory and formally inaugurated the government at Navajo Springs, 40 miles west of Zuñi, on December 29, 1863.[1] The capital was fixed temporarily at Prescott, and the first session of the Territorial legislature met on September 26, 1964.

The new government was not long in proclaiming its adhesion to the great American ideal. Gov. Goodwin uttered the first formal official expression on the subject of public education in his first message to the first session of the first legislature of the Territory when he said:

> One of the most interesting and important subjects that will engage your attention is the establishment of a system of common schools.
>
> Self-government and universal education are inseparable. The one can be exercised only as the other is enjoyed. The common school, the high school, and the university should all be established and are worthy of your fostering care. The first duty of the legislators of a free State is to make, as far as lies in their power, education as free to all its citizens as the air they breathe. A system of common schools is the grand foundation upon which the whole superstructure should rest. If that be broad and firm, a symmetrical and elegant temple of learning will be erected. I earnestly recommend that a portion of the funds raised by taxation be appropriated for these purposes and that a beginning, though small, be made.
>
> The act organizing the Territory of New Mexico provides that, when the lands in this Territory shall be surveyed, * * * sections numbered 16 and 36 in each township are reserved for the purpose of being applied to schools. * * * It does not seem to me that any portion of this donation can be made immediately available.

---

[1] Jour. First Legislative Assembly, Arizona, 1864, p. 18. Navajo Springs is about 40 miles east of the present town of Holbrook, on the Santa Fé Railroad.

To these words, which look to the future, were added others which looked to the past, for the final act which divided church and state was yet to be fought out in Arizona, and the public-school system did not enter on the inheritance of the church in that Territory without a struggle.

Gov. Goodwin continued:

> The only school which I have visited in the Territory, though doubtless there are others, is one at the old Mission Church of San Xavier. If any such institution be recognized by an endowment, I suggest that some aid be given to this school. A small donation at this time would materially assist an ancient and most laudable charity of the church to which a large proportion of our people belong, and would encourage it in preserving one of the most beautiful remnants of art on the continent.[1]

The first official action of the legislature of the Territory at this session was to authorize the governor to appoint a commissioner to prepare and report on a code of laws as a basis of Territorial government. The bill for this purpose was introduced, considered, and passed by both houses in a single day, and on the same day, October 1, 1864, was signed by Gov. Goodwin, who immediately appointed Hon. William F. Howell, then an associate justice of the supreme court of the Territory, to prepare and report the proposed code. Judge Howell had come into the Territory with the government and had found—

> that the laws under which we were required to act were so ill-adapted to our condition that a complete organization of the Territorial government could not be had until a code of laws was substituted for those now in force.

He thereupon undertook in advance the preparation of such a code, and his completed work was presented for the consideration of the legislature on October 3. The proposed code, based on the codes of California and New York, was then considered and discussed by the legislature; it was finally adopted as a whole as proposed by Judge Howell, went into effect at once, and became the basis for the legislative work of Arizona.

As adopted by the legislature of 1864, chapter 23 of the Howell code treats "Of Education." It was divided into four parts and provided for (1) a Territorial university; (2) a common-school system; (3) a Territorial library; and (4) an historical department.

The Howell code may be regarded as a sort of constitutional outline under and in accord with which future legislation was to be developed. It was not in itself a school code, but it outlined the direction such a code when enacted should take. It proposed, first of all, a higher institution "for the purpose of educating youth in the various branches of literature, science, and arts" to be known as the University of Arizona. The university was to be under a board of seven regents made up of the governor, the judges of the supreme court, and three other members chosen by the legislature. The main support of the institution was to be derived from the lands granted to the territory for that purpose. The university, when organized, was to consist of (1) a department of literature, science, and the arts; (2) a department of natural history, including a history of the Territory; and (3) such other departments to be added as the regents should deem necessary and the university funds allow. The regents were directed to select a site for the university before January 1, 1866. In the meantime, university moneys accruing were to be kept in the hands of the State treasurer.

---

[1] Governor's message, Sept. 30, 1864, in Jour. First Legislative Assembly, Arizona, pp. 39–40.

Under this law nothing was accomplished toward the organization of the proposed university. As McCrea has pertinently said, for the next 10 years the best energies of the people were to be devoted to a desolating Indian war; and the University of Arizona, the dream of this Michigan jurist and of his friend, the governor, was forgotten for a generation in the fierce struggle to hold the land for civilization.[1]

In the matter of common schools it was provided that—

> as soon as there shall have accumulated sufficient funds and a necessity therefor exists the legislature shall provide for a system of common-school education at the public expense and may at any time authorize a tax to be levied by school districts for the support of schools until such system of common-school education shall be established.

The proceeds of lands granted by Congress for this purpose, appropriations made by the Territory, and the proceeds of gifts, grants, and donations "shall be and remain a perpetual fund, the interest, rents, and proceeds thereof to be inviolably applied to the object of the original grant or gift, and to no other use or purpose whatsoever"; and until such system was established by law all moneys were to accumulate and remain in the Territorial treasury as a distinct fund, to be known as the common-school fund.[2]

The remaining phases of the Howell code were supplementary to the above. They provided for the establishment of a Territorial library supported by moneys out of the Territorial treasury and in charge of a Territorial librarian. And in addition to the above it was provided that—

---

[1] McCrea, Samuel Pressly: Establishment of the Arizona School System, in Report Supt. Public Instruction, 1907–8, p. 79 et seq. Mr. McCrea was educated at Muskingum College and at the Indiana State Normal School. He has taught in various sections of the Territory and was in 1897–98 principal of the Tucson public schools.

[2] On the income from Territorial lands McCrea remarks (p. 78): "As was true elsewhere, the Arizona legislators had an exaggerated idea of the amount of income likely to arise from the grants of land made by Congress for education. Until 1898 Arizona derived no income from the school lands within her borders, and then and since only a small amount from leasing sections 16 and 36 in the farming regions of the Territory."

> there shall be established and connected with the Territorial library an historical department, the object of which shall be to collect, preserve, and publish the natural and political history of the Territory. For this purpose the librarian shall procure, as far as possible, all writings, histories, letters, lectures, essays, maps, charts, and books relating to said Territory and its history, and carefully preserve the same. In like manner he shall procure specimens of geology, mineralogy, and botany found or produced within the Territory.

The librarian was to collect also all newspapers, pamphlets, books, and magazines published in the Territory and to print from time to time selections from his manuscript papers. An assistant librarian might be appointed to superintend this division, but after the university was established it was to be transferred to the historical department of the university.

After passing the Howell code the legislature turned its attention to the consideration of the question of the establishment of a public educational system. This was decided against:[1]

> The joint committee on education report that after a mature consideration they have decided that it would be premature to establish or to attempt any regular system of common or district schools. At present the Territory is too sparsely settled, and the necessary officers for such an establishment would be more costly than the education of the children would warrant.

The committee did provide, however, that a gift of $250 be paid to the person "in pastoral charge" of the mission school at San Xavier del Bac, "for purchase of books of instruction, stationery, and furniture." The pupils in this school were Mexicans and Papago Indians; it was characterized as the first school opened in American Arizona, and the grant was without limitations, but grants of similar amounts to Prescott, LaPaz, and Mohave were declared to be "for benefit of a public school"; and it was further provided that "said appropriations shall be void and of no effect unless said towns by taxation, appropriation, or individual enterprise, furnish an equal sum for the aid of such school."

It was reported that there had been three primary schools in Tucson "during part of last year," and to this town was given $500 with the general requirement that the town raise a similar amount and an additional proviso that "the English language forms a part of the instruction of such school."

The public moneys appropriated were to be placed in the hands of the board of county commissioners, to be paid over by them when the schools had complied with the terms of the act. County and judicial district treasurers were also required to pay over to the county commissioners for the benefit of the public schools "all moneys in their hands that may have accrued from town licenses, and not otherwise appropriated."

---

[1] See report of joint committee in Jours. First Legislative Assembly, 1864, pp. 176–77.

It was further ordered that the county commissioners "'shall be trustees of public schools and may appoint a suitable person to examine the course of instruction, discipline, and attendance of said schools, and the qualifications of the teachers, and report the same to them at their stated general meeting"; neither commissioners nor inspectors were to receive any pay for their work.[1]

From these statements it will be noted that the church school was devoted to the instruction of Mexican and Indian children, and that some of such private schools as existed were not taught in English.

To meet the requirements of these appropriations the sum of $1,500 was voted,[2] but it does not appear that the conditions of the grants were complied with by the towns or that the money made available was used, for in his message to the legislature of 1867 Gov. R. C. McCormick says:

> If I am correctly informed, none of the towns have complied with this requirement, and the funds of the Territory have not been used. The sums, however, are insufficient to be of more than a temporary benefit, and sufficient funds have not yet accumulated.[3]

By 1865 interest in the schools had begun to wane. Although practically nothing had been done, Gov. McCormick then thought that "the existing provisions for schools" in the various parts of the Territory were sufficient;[4] and, as usual, like governor, like legislature, no bill looking to the advancement of education was passed or even considered. Nor was anything done educationally in 1866. In 1867 Gov. McCormick had concluded that "in the opinion of many of the people the time has come for some definite and liberal provision for the establishment and maintenance of public schools in the Territory," and an act on schools was passed in October, 1867.[5]

The law of 1867 provided that the county board of supervisors[6] should have power to establish school districts. Any settlement with a resident population of 100 persons might be set apart as a school district, and any number of legal voters might make application for a school in such district. The board of supervisors were then to levy a tax of not more than 5 mills on the assessed value of all taxable property within the limits of the district "as shown by the last assessment roll of the county assessor." This tax was to be collected by the county tax collector and paid into the county treasury. The supervisors were to determine the site of the schools, purchase, build, or hire rooms suitable for school purposes, "furnish the same with proper desks, tables, books, and seats, and shall, from time to time, hire competent teachers for such schools, for such periods as the funds on hand may allow."

---

[1] Approved Nov. 7, 1864.

[2] Act of Nov. 10, 1864.

[3] Jours. of Fourth Legislative Assembly, 1867, p. 42. In his message to the assembly of 1865 (Jours., 1865, p. 47) Gov. McCormick had said that Prescott had availed itself of the opportunity and that "a school has been well sustained during part of the year."

[4] Message in Jour., 1865, p. 47.

[5] The first bills to establish schools in Arizona were introduced by Hon. Solomon W. Chambers, of Tubac, and Hon. John B. Allen, later a resident of the same place. The Chambers bill was defeated, and the Allen bill became the law of 1867. See Historical Sketch of Public Schools of Arizona in Report Tucson Public Schools, 1893–94, p. 25.

[6] These are presumably the same officers as those called county commissioners in the act of 1864.

It does not appear that much was accomplished under this law, for then, as later, many communities in Arizona could not qualify in population requirements. It is probable, however, that the framers of the act of 1867 had in mind the organization of schools in the towns and cities, and if the law had been faithfully carried out public schools might have been organized in the four county seats and in one or two of the larger mining camps.[1] Nothing seems to have been done, for the United States Bureau of Education said in its report for 1870 that it was unable to ascertain "whether any schools have gone into operation under this law."[2]

Gov. McCormick had nothing to say on the subject in his message to the fifth assembly (1868), but nevertheless on the 16th of December, 1868, the legislature tried its hand on a more detailed school law than had been hitherto attempted.[3]

This law had in view an elaboration of the act of 1867. It provided that the county board of supervisors should be constituted a county board of education and have under its authority all matters pertaining to education. The board was to recommend legislation, alterations, and amendments and make annual reports. They were to select and adopt the textbooks to be used and divide counties into school districts of not less than 20 children.

The counties were to choose at their annual election a county superintendent of public schools, who was to make an annual report and have charge of the public-school interests of the county. He was to apportion the school fund in proportion to the number of school children living in each district between 4 and 21 years of age, visit the schools, examine into their progress, and advise with the teachers. He was to hold at stated times public examinations for all persons offering as teachers and grant certificates for not more than one year to such as were qualified to teach orthography, reading, writing, arithmetic, geography, and English grammar.

The voters in a school district meeting had authority to vote such tax as necessary to furnish the schoolhouse with blackboards, outline maps, and apparatus, provided this tax did not exceed one-fourth of 1 per cent per annum. A district school board consisting of a director, clerk, and treasurer was to be elected, and the school district when thus organized was given corporate powers. The voters were to decide also how long the schools should be kept open and whether they should be taught by a man or woman or by both, and whether the school money should be applied to the summer or winter term. The district board had general charge of the schools, and its clerk was to make an annual report.

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[1] McCrea, in Long's Report, 1908, p. 81.

[2] Rept. U. S. Commis. of Educ., 1870, p. 318.

[3] See Compiled Laws of Arizona, 1871, pp. 218–228; also session laws, 1868, known as the Chambers bill because introduced by Hon. Solomon W. Chambers, who had introduced a bill in 1867 of which this was an elaboration. See Historical Sketch of the Public Schools of Arizona in Report Tucson Public Schools, 1893–94, p. 25.

It was provided that the district tax should not exceed 1½ per cent per annum, but the county board might levy an additional one-fifth of 1 per cent on all the taxable property in each county for the support of public schools in the county. The funds raised in the county by taxation or coming from the legislature or other sources were to be known as the common school fund, and were to be used for no other purpose; taxes for schools were to be "assessed on the same kind of property as taxes for county purposes are assessed." They were also collected by the same officers and in the same way as other county taxes.

In neither of these acts was there any provision for Territorial oversight. There was, however, something of a county organization, with a county superintendent; a county tax; a district organization with required and special taxes. A part of the machinery for schools was being evolved, but the acts of 1867 and 1868 provided for local taxes only for schools, and this phase of taxation has not even yet attained full success within the State; further, the school officers—most of them ex officios—were to receive nothing for the performance of these new duties, and there was always the unsolved problem of distances. It is to be presumed that school organization would begin with the towns, and although Gov. McCormick complimented the legislature and himself by saying that they had laid "the foundations of a thorough system of common schools, an act in itself sufficient to make your meeting memorable," there is little or no record to show that anything was done. As McCrea has suggested (p. 82), what the Territory needed was an educational leader, and founding schools was not Gov. McCormick's forte.

In justice to the officers of the Government and other leaders, it must be remembered also that in 1870 there were reported but 9,581 persons living in a territory that covered more than 113,000 square miles, or if they had been evenly distributed only about one person to every 12 square miles of territory; that in addition much of this was barren desert infested by the infernal Apaches, perhaps the most cruel and devilish of all American Indians.

As a matter of fact, however, the conditions were much better than the above would indicate. The few families living here and there on individual ranches may be ignored educationally, for they were lucky if they escaped with their lives. But most of the settlers lived in small towns or villages, in communities that were convenient to farming or mining operations, and with them the beginnings of a public-school system were possible. As McCrea points out, in several of the mining camps there were enough Mexican children to start a school, but there were no buildings, books, or teachers. Half the population spoke no English; few of the children had ever seen a school; and while the more intelligent of both races were anxious for schools, the great mass of the people were not only indifferent, but sometimes even hostile.[1]

Perhaps what these people needed most was educational leadership. This they did not have. Gov. Goodwin went out of office after one year; Gov. McCormick was more interested in exploiting the natural resources; and it was not until the time of Gov. Safford that the schools might feel that their educational Moses had arisen.

Of the law of 1868, of the work of Gov. McCormick, and of the schools and school prospects in general, McCrea says:

> The administration of the new school law rested on the slow-moving boards of supervisors, and on a county superintendent of schools elected by the people, but whose compensation was in the supervisors' hands. The schools were to be supported entirely by local taxes, which were limited in amount, and must be raised by the people of the respective districts. I do not know whence this school law was obtained, but it was entirely unsuited to a people who had no training in local self-government. The people of Arizona have not even yet learned the valuable lesson of partially supporting their schools by local taxes, and rarely levy special taxes upon districts except to meet the expense of erecting new school buildings.
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> While there was enough authority in the law to provide schools, there was as yet nothing to create a strong desire for them. Gov. McCormick had done much to advance the material interests of the Territory, but founding schools was not his forte. What the people most needed was an educational leader, and he was soon to be supplied. * * * The Federal Census of 1870 supplies the background of the seemingly hopeless picture. The large foreign element, mainly Mexican, would lead us to expect a startling illiteracy. Few children attended any kind of school. The professions were hardly represented at all. The Territory had but one newspaper—The Arizona Miner—at Prescott, with a circulation of 280 copies; though a second paper, the Arizona Citizen, was founded at Tucson that year. No Protestant Church had yet been founded, though there had been some missionary effort. The Catholic Church was strong, and was soon able to begin founding parochial schools and convents. The situation from an educational standpoint was bad enough. The only redeeming feature was the fact that the Territory had no debt, and the counties but a slight one. Some property had been accumulated by the limited popu-

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[1] McCrea, report, 1908, pp. 81–82.

lation in the face of a constant struggle with the worst Indians on the continent. But a brighter day was about to dawn for Arizona.

The first period of effort had now passed without tangible results. In his summary for the period McCrea remarks:

> In the first period 1864–1869 the people of the Territory were engaged in a fierce struggle for the possession of the land. The great mineral wealth of the Territory was becoming known, though other occupations than mining and freighting were developed slowly and under great difficulties. Neither life nor property was safe. While such industrial conditions continued, stability and thrift were largely lacking in the population, and the necessity of educating their children appealed to them but slightly. The chief men of the Territory wanted to see those institutions founded which would help to make the possession of the Territory secure, and which would aid in attracting to it a more intelligent and stable population.[1]

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[1] McCrea, loc. cit., p. 74.

Chapter III.

THE ADMINISTRATION OF GOV. SAFFORD—THE STATE SUPERINTENDENCY ESTABLISHED, 1869–1879.

The law of 1868 brought to a close what may be called the first period of public education in Arizona. Little was accomplished during that period. The school system was not organized and had not yet found its leader.

This leader came in the person of Anson P. K. Safford, who on April 7, 1869, was appointed third governor of the Territory. Gov. Safford had been a member of the California House of Representatives, had been surveyor general of Nevada, and is said to have been unusually well equipped for his new position. He was governor for nearly eight years—the longest term during which any one man has as yet held the office. He is believed to have influenced the history of the Territory far more than any other executive, and was more generally supported in his efforts for the public good. Owing in part to more favorable conditions, he was also more successful than his predecessors in advancing the material interests of the Territory, but his fame as an able administrator rests mainly on his successful efforts to solve the educational problem of Arizona.

It should not be understood, however, that Gov. Safford's task in convincing the members of the legislature of the correctness of his educational views was an easy matter, or that the vigorous, self-contained, and self-reliant men who made up that frontier legislature were won except by the strongest and soundest arguments, as the following pages will show.

His message to the legislature of 1871, the first which met during his administration, is in part an eloquent oration on the importance and necessity of education. When we consider the character of the country, the scarcity of population, the savage Apache, and the lack of all facilities for education, the sublime faith and devotion of Gov. Safford really earned the reward which posterity has recognized as being his due, and which they have in part repaid by calling one of the towns of the upper Gila Valley, in Graham County, in his honor.

Fortunately for the historian, Gov. Safford has himself told in glowing periods of this educational development; and his review, when supplemented and reenforced by his messages, presents a story well worthy of being retold for the sake of those who face difficulties less severe than those faced by Gov. Safford in 1871.

In his report to the Commissioner of Education in 1876, Gov. Safford said:[1]

> Upon assuming the duties of the office of governor in the year 1869 I found that several previous legislatures had enacted school laws, but in none had any positive provisions been made to sustain public schools, it having been left optional with school-board trustees and county boards of supervisors to levy a school tax or not. The result was that no means were provided and no schools were organized. I saw clearly that the first and most important measure to adopt was to provide the means by making the tax compulsory and as certain as the revenue for carrying on the machinery of government. I at once, after assuming the duties of my office, began to agitate the subject. The first legislature convened in 1871. I prepared a school bill and presented it to the members as soon as they assembled.

Gov. Safford emphasized and made clear to the legislature his position when he said in his message:

> Next in importance to the Indian question, none will claim your attention over that of devising some plan for the education of the youth of our Territory. The recent census returns show a population of children, under the age of 21 and over 6 years, of 1,923, and the mortifying fact has to be admitted that we have not a public school in the Territory. There is, and has been for some time, a school in Prescott under the management of S. C. Rogers, and much credit is due that gentleman for his zeal and efforts to encourage education. The Sisters of St. Joseph have recently established a school in Tucson for the education of females, and too much praise can not be accorded them for leaving home and its surrounding comforts and coming to this remote Territory to promote education. With limited means and in a strange land they have overcome every obstacle, and in a few months established a school creditable to any country, and which is already attended by about 130 pupils.
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> But the object most desirable to attain is the adoption of a school system for free public schools, so that the poor and rich alike can share equal benefits. In a country like ours, where the power to govern is derived from the consent of the governed, it becomes a matter of vital importance and necessity, if we are to protect and make permanent our republican institutions, that the people shall be educated. Not only this, but history records the fact that the power and glory of nations and peoples keep pace only with their enlightenment and intelligence. * * *
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> I am of the opinion that our Government should adopt a system of free schools for the whole people, and that, as soon as it were put in operation, it should by law compel the attendance of every child of sound mind and proper age throughout the length and breadth of the Republic. * * *
>
> I consider it imperatively necessary that we shall do something for ourselves. The present school law has been found inadequate to accomplish the desired object; in fact, it has been wholly inoperative. To obtain the means to put a free school system in operation I would recommend that a portion of the Territorial revenues be set apart for school purposes, and that this fund be divided between the several counties of the Territory in proportion to the number of children that attend school. The boards of supervisors of the several counties should be compelled to divide the counties into one or more school districts, and levy a tax upon all the property of the county to raise a sufficient fund, with the money derived from the Territory, to maintain, for a term of

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[1] Rept. U. S. Commis. of Educ., 1876, pp. 431–433.

> at least six months each year, one or more free schools in each of the counties. This will undoubtedly, to a small extent, increase taxation; but I hardly believe there is a property owner who would not prefer to pay an increased tax than see the rising generation grow up in ignorance; and the small extra tax that is required to maintain free schools will very soon be doubly repaid in the saving of expenses in criminal prosecutions.[1]

The school bill was introduced by the Hon. Estevan Ochoa, probably the most prominent Mexican of that day in Arizona. He was generally respected and had great personal influence, and the spectacle of a citizen of that race presenting an educational measure in an American assembly ought to have spurred his neighbors to action; but somehow it did not, and the bill received but a half-hearted support.[2]

Gov. Safford himself tells how his message and bill were received by the legislature:[3]

> Scarcely a member looked upon it with favor. They argued that the Apaches were overrunning the country; that through murder and robbery the people were in poverty and distress; that repeated attempts had been made to organize schools and that failure had always ensued. To these objections I replied that the American people could and ultimately would subdue the Apaches; that unless we educated the rising generation we should raise up a population no more capable of self-government than the Apaches themselves; and that the failure to establish schools had been the result of imperfect statutes during the entire session.
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> Finally, on the last day of the session, they passed the bill, after striking out nearly all the revenue which had been provided. The measure was the best that could be secured and had to be accepted as it was.

I. THE BASIC ACT OF 1871.

But even then the act of February 18, 1871, was a long step on the road leading to complete school organization. It was the first law that provided for a general or Territorial tax for the support of schools, and it has served as the basic law for subsequent educational enactments.[4] To begin with, it levied a general Territorial tax of 10 cents on the $100 of property and directed that this be collected and paid into the Territorial treasury "as a special fund for school purposes." It was provided also that it be levied and collected "at the same time and in the same manner as other Territorial revenues," thus placing school taxes on the same level as other taxes. They were not relegated to a different category, put on a different footing, and the power given to every disgruntled voter to say whether there should be taxes at all, and if so, how much, and how they should be collected, as was done in some of the States. In other words, the schools were recognized as one of the necessary requirements of modern government, to be provided for just as the police department or the executive officers. We may accurately say, then, that while Arizona did not escape the almost universal struggle which has been waged at one time or another by one interest or another against the public-school system, there has never been a day since the organization of the Territory when the public-school idea did not stand out boldly and distinctly as a function of the modern State.

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[1] See Jours. Legislative Assembly, 1871, pp. 43–45.

[2] The Historical Sketch of the Arizona Public Schools, printed in the Report of Tucson Public Schools for 1893–94, p. 25 et seq., says that this bill was introduced by Hon. H. S. Stevens, of Pima County. The apparent contradiction can probably be explained by referring one introduction to one house and one to the other. See McCrea, loc. cit., p. 84.

[3] See Rept. U. S. Commis. of Educ., 1876, p. 482. The bill was passed Feb. 18, 1871.

[4] McCrea points out that the Arizona school law of 1871 "was evidently taken from the Revised School Laws of California (1866), as the general plan for the proposed system was the same as that of California, while many of the provisions were couched in the same language." The sketch in the Tucson school report for 1893–94 makes the same statement.

The law of 1871 ordered that the county board of supervisors should levy a county school tax not to exceed 50 cents per hundred, to be collected as other taxes, and it provided further for the enforcement of this action if the county authorities fail to act.

A Territorial board of education was created, consisting of the Territorial secretary, the superintendent of public instruction, and the Territorial treasurer. Since the governor was made ex officio Territorial superintendent, and the Territorial treasurer was one of his appointees, it is evident that he controlled the situation, and that the schools would fare well or ill according to his own individual enthusiasm for education. The board was to hold at least two meetings per year "for the purpose of devising plans for the improvement and management of the public-school funds and for the better organization of the public schools of the Territory. The governor was made ex officio superintendent of public instruction, but with no increase in salary for these extra duties. He was given, however, $500 for expenses."[1] His duties were to apportion funds between the pupils 6 to 21; make an annual report; prescribe forms; prepare a school register; visit each county every year; and make estimates of future expenditures on which was to be based the county school tax. All school moneys, both county and Territorial, were to be regarded as special funds and were to be used for school purposes only.

The probate judge of the county was made ex officio county school superintendent, but with no extra pay,[2] except $100 for traveling expenses. He was to apportion the county school money among the school districts in proportion to children 6 to 21, provided the schools had been kept open for three months;[1] he was to visit the schools; distribute blanks; and make reports. In case he failed to make reports he was to be fined.

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[1] This item appears again and again in the official records of the Territory as if it were a real salary paid to the superintendent instead of a mere extra allowance to the governor to meet extra expenses when acting in his capacity as Territorial superintendent.

[2] By the act of Feb. 18, 1871, the salary of the probate judges was fixed at $800 per annum.

In each school district a board of three public-school trustees was to be elected, in whose hands, when organized, was placed the direct management of the schools and the granting of teaching certificates. They were to take the school census every year; were to provide and furnish schoolhouses; and when Territorial and county money was not sufficient to keep the schools open "for at least three months in each year" they might levy a district tax sufficient to make up the shortage; by a two-thirds vote also the district might levy a further tax to extend the term beyond three months and to erect schoolhouses. New school districts might be set off on petition of 10 families. A uniform series of textbooks was adopted, and indigent pupils might be supplied, but the books were not otherwise furnished free. The subjects taught in the schools covered spelling, reading, grammar, arithmetic, geography, physiology, "and such other studies as may be by said board deemed necessary."

This law furnished the Territory for the first time a complete system—a Territorial center in the Territorial board and superintendent; county organization and supervision; district or local supervision, with a tax levied by each of the three divisions and all contributing to the support of the system. Its vital weakness was that all the supervision was to be done by ex officios, who, engaged in other lines of administrative work, had often little time and possibly less inclination to see the duties of school administration carried out. The acme of this folly is seen in the section which ordered the probate judges to make certain school reports and fined them for failure, but did not pay them for performance.[2]

Under date of November 3, 1871 (the law was passed Feb. 18, 1871), Gov. Safford writes to the United States Bureau of Education that "every effort has been made to place a free school system in operation with as little expense as possible. It is now confidently expected that by January 1, 1872, a free school will be established in every school district of the Territory."[1] At this time also Gov. Safford further urged that Congress allow the Territory to sell some of the lands which were to be donated to it for schools when it became a State.

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[1] The Weekly Miner (Prescott) complains in its issues of Nov. 25 and Dec. 2, 1871, that the school law was defective. It said the school system, when once under way, might go on indefinitely, but there was no way to start it, for the law provided that no school should have any public money unless it had had a school for three months in the previous year, or before the first distribution. The trustees must conduct the school for three months at their own expense or ignore sec. 33 of the law. It urged that it would be only by utmost and immediate attention that they could hope to establish a school by Jan. 1, 1872. They seem to have risen to the occasion, however, for on Jan. 2 the Miner announces that the board was to lease a building and open a school as soon as the textbooks ordered from San Francisco arrived.

[2] The act of 1873 allowed the probate judges $100 per year for their services. See Sess. Acts, 1873, sec. 15, p. 66.

Later Gov. Safford gave some further account of the workings of the act of 1871.[2] He then said:

> As soon as the legislature [of 1871] adjourned every part of the Territory was visited, and appeals to aid in establishing schools under the law, which constituted the governor ex officio superintendent, were everywhere made. A desire for schools soon began to appear among the people. We had no books nor teachers; all had to be procured in the older States. In the course of the following year, several schools were in successful operation.

In his report for 1872 he grew enthusiastic:

> A free school has been put in operation during the present year in every school district .where there was a sufficient number of children, and has been or will be in all cases continued three months, in most of the districts six months, and in some nine months. The board of supervisors should be compelled to levy a uniform tax for school purposes in every county. The trust is too sacred to leave to the discretion of three men. Before the free-school system was inaugurated in this Territory many doubted its practicability, and but few believed it could be made a success, but now all, with one accord, are pleased with it, and I think but little difficulty will be met in continuing and perfecting the system. The larger part of the children are of Mexican birth, and but few of them can speak the English language. They have been taught altogether in English, and their progress has been all that could be desired.[3]

It may be of interest to summarize at this point what Prof. McCrea has to say on the results of this law. His opinion is of the more value because he was for years a part of the movement of which he wrote.

In his opinion, and in this view he is doubtless correct, the school law of 1871 was the basic law of the subsequent Territorial educational development. He has given with great clearness the steps which followed looking to the organization of schools:

> Immediately upon the adjournment of the assembly the governor [Safford] entered upon a wonderful educational crusade. Notwithstanding the inadequate means of travel, the widely scattered population, and the hostile Apaches,

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[1] Rept. U. S. Commis. of Educ., 1871, p. 377. In June, 1871, John B. Allen, Territorial treasurer, reported that he had $519.92 to be divided among the counties (Weekly Miner, June 15, 1872). Money was apportioned Dec. 31, 1871, as follows:

Pima County	503 children	$695. 23
Yuma County	364 children	419. 66
Maricopa County	94 children	103. 38
Yavapai County	211 children	248. 28
Total		1, 466. 55

The Weekly Miner of Jan. 2, 1872, in commenting on these figures, claims that Pima had too much and the others too little. It was reported in the Miner on July 1, 1871, that Yavapai had a county school rate of 10 cents and a Territorial rate of 10 cents.

[2] Rept. of U. S. Commis. of Educ., 1876, p. 432.

[3] Ibid., 1872, p. 365.

every part of the Territory was visited, and every effort was made to encourage the people to organize public schools under the new law. A desire for schools began to appear among the people, and under the able leadership of this masterful man the good work was at last begun. There were no teachers and no school books, except the few brought in by the governor some months before. All had to be procured in the older States.[1] In his labors he was ably seconded by the probate judges of the respective counties whom he had named to assist him in this important work.

As Gov. Safford pointed out, when the legislature of 1873 assembled, the school sentiment had grown so strong that members came generally fully instructed to strengthen the system to the extent of their power. But, on the other hand, McCrea has shown in his study that, while the legislature was willing to do a great deal for the schools, they wanted to do it in their own way and had not yet learned that the governor knew the needs of the schools far better than they could know them.[2]

It was clearly the purpose of the governor to see to it that no failure could be rightly charged to him. In his message to the legislature, in 1873, he says:

> It is a source of pride and satisfaction to me, with all the obstacles, that so good a commencement has been made. Free schools have been taught, during the past year, in every school district in the Territory for at least three months. The advancement by the pupils has been extraordinary, and the sentiment of the people has become interested and cemented into a determination to make almost any sacrifices to educate the rising generation. No officer interested with putting the school law into operation has yet received any compensation for his services; so that every dollar raised for school purposes has been applied to furnishing schoolrooms, the purchase of books, and payment of teachers. In many instances the establishment of schools was delayed for the want of books and teachers; and the almost entire lack of schoolhouses has been a serious embarrassment.

Since there remained a surplus of more than $17,000 in the Territorial treasury after paying all debts, the governor suggested that $5,000 be divided among the counties for the erection and improvement of schoolhouses, provided that the districts raised twice the sum for the same purpose. This wise proposal was rejected. He suggested also that $5,000 be transferred from the general to the school fund to be distributed to the counties under the law. This sum was so appropriated, but was ordered to be divided equally among the counties,[3] as was a further sum of $1,500 which was appropriated "for the benefit of the public schools,"[4] except that the share assigned by this act to Pima County was ordered to be paid to the Sisters of St. Joseph in Tucson.[1]

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[1] Ivison, Blakeman & Co., of New York, donated in 1872 several thousand school books to the Territory, while A. L. Bancroft & Co. secured the contract to furnish school books up to 1879. See Tucson Public School Report, 1893–94, p. 26.

[2] Arizona Report, 1908, p. 87.

[3] Sess. Laws, 1873, pp. 93, 94.

[4] Ibid., pp. 25, 26.

The school law of 1871 had provided that the county school tax should be "not to exceed" 50 cents on the hundred, but experience led Gov. Safford in 1873 to recommend a uniform tax rate in all the counties for school purposes. He then inaugurated also the movement looking toward compulsory attendance. The legislature of 1874, for its part, while doing some things that were of service, did others that were reactionary. With the new and excellent provisions for a Territorial school tax of 25 cents on each $100 of valuation and a uniform county school tax of the same amount,[2] was linked the repeal of all sections of the law apportioning school money according to attendance, and thus the one powerful incentive for building up attendance was removed.[3]

The county probate judges as ex officio county school superintendents were also relieved from the requirement to visit the schools, but the $100 given under the act of 1871 for expenses was retained as salary.[4] Of this phase of educational development McCrea remarks:[5]

> With this amendment begins the agitation of the probate judges to secure legislation to increase their emoluments for work as school superintendents without increasing their duties to any corresponding extent. These officers were also most unwisely given the authority to select textbooks for their respective counties.[6]

Gov. Safford says that the schools flourished from 1873 to 1875 "to the entire satisfaction of all interested." Statistics in somewhat detailed form are given by him in his reports to the Commissioner of Education, and they show for the most part a steady development and a growth that promised well for the future. It was believed that there would be revenue enough to maintain free schools in each of the districts for six months in the year, and under date of August

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[1] The act provided that this grant was to be made in case that "Territorial warrant No. 383, drawn on the 17th day of October, 1872, for $300, in favor of the 'Sisters of St. Joseph,' shall be first surrendered and canceled without payment." See acts of 1873, pp. 25, 26. An act of Feb. 18, 1871, had appropriated $300 to the Sisters of St. Joseph "who are teaching and maintaining a school for the education of young ladies, in the town of Tucson, to enable them to pay for the school books now in use in said school." The appropriation under the act of 1871 had not been paid by the Territorial treasurer because he believed it illegal. (Jours. Legislative Assembly, 1873, p. 88.) The effort was then made by the law of 1873 to charge this gift up to the school fund of Pima County, but it again failed, for the act of 1875 (Sess. Laws, 1875, p. 91) ordered that it be paid out of the general fund.

[2] Sess. Laws, 1873, pp. 64–66, secs. 1 and 2.

[3] Sess. Laws, 1873, pars. 6 and 16, pp. 65, 66. See also McCrea in Superintendent's Report, 1908, p. 87. Girls seem to have been admitted to the Tucson schools now for the first time. See McCrea, op. cit., p. 89.

[4] Sess. Laws, 1873, par. 15, p. 66.

[5] Arizona Report for 1908, p. 88.

[6] Sess. Laws, 1873, par. 31, p. 66.

30, 1873, he wrote that arrangements had been made to open a free school in every district in the following October. He urged the necessity of keeping all religious instruction out of the schools and concluded by saying:

> After four years' incessant labor I have succeeded in obtaining means, books, and teachers for excellent schools, so that every child within the Territory may obtain an education. While I remain in office our free schools will be kept open, and I shall endeavor at the next session of the legislature to make education compulsory.

Again he says:

> Without books, schoolhouses, or teachers to commence with, in less than two years the free-school system has been fairly and successfully put in operation throughout the Territory.

McCrea has given some additional information on the difficulties encountered which is worthy of quotation here:[1]

> In the various communications made by Gov. Safford to the Commissioner of Education during 1873 we learn something of the difficulties under which he labored, the patience and persistence he displayed, and the wonderful success which began to reward his efforts. The work undertaken was enough to daunt anyone not possessed of a heroic soul. The Territorial census of 1872 showed a population of but 10,743, and these were scattered over a rough and barren country about as large as New York and all New England. Most of the people spoke an alien language to which they were much attached. There were few opportunities for profitable employment. Supplies must be brought a thousand miles from California and were very costly. The effort to subdue a wilderness such as they lived in was enough for any people, without being subjected to the barbarity of the unspeakable Apaches. With so many varied duties pressing upon him, it is remarkable that the governor could find time to devote to educational improvement, and yet he became familiar with all the details of the work.

Fortunately there is a contemporary witness who has given his testimony to the same effect. John Wasson, surveyor general, said in his newspaper, the Arizona Citizen, on May 14, 1874:

> Less than two years ago the free-school system was started in Arizona, without schoolhouses, books, or teachers. It seemed a forlorn hope for the poor Apache-ridden people to provide for the education of the children under such adverse conditions, but the same undaunted spirit that had faced death and torture through a long series of years said, "We must either have schools or more jails, and we prefer the former"; and the result shows that people can do if they will. Yuma has a good schoolhouse, neatly furnished, and one will soon be erected at Ehrenberg. We are assured that Mohave County will erect schoolhouses as fast as required. The people of Prescott are now constructing a schoolhouse that will be a credit to the town and Territory. A schoolhouse was built below Phoenix, in Maricopa County, last year, and now the people of Phoenix are making arrangements and already have the necessary subscriptions to build one worthy of that enterprising and growing town. A schoolhouse is in process of construction at Florence in every way suitable

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[1] Arizona School Report for 1908, pp. 90–92.

> for the purpose. The people of Tucson are determined not to be outdone by their young neighbors, and are now making arrangements to build a house with sufficient capacity to accommodate 200 pupils, and we trust that the Sanford [Safford?] and San Pedro settlements will not be behind in the good work. But the most encouraging feature of all is that our late legislature made provision for sufficient school revenue to keep free schools in operation in every school district in the Territory for from six to nine months during each year. With these advantages the poorest children of the Territory are provided with ample opportunities for an education, and if in after years they do not make useful men and women, it will be their own and not the fault of the Territory.

Continuing his remarks in this connection, Mr. Wasson says further:

> We think it but right that credit should be awarded to the man whose persistent efforts have brought about the present interest in education. * * * We refer to Gov. A. P. K. Safford, who has worked night and day and traveled all over Arizona in this cause. We know that the people of the Territory will second what we say.[1]

Such was contemporary and later opinion on the school work of Gov. Safford. It seems that with him the schools became almost a religion, for the unknown writer on the history of the public schools in 1894 credits him with using as a school motto:

> The school first, the church second; no person can well understand and fulfill his obligations to God and to country without education.[2]

II. THE SITUATION IN 1875.

Gov. Safford's message to the legislature in 1875 was intended to advance still further the program already entered on and was couched in much the same noble and inspiring terms:

> Under the present school law the free-school system has been made a success, and the means are afforded by which every child in this Territory can obtain the rudiments of an education. But a trifling sum is paid to officers for their services, and nearly the entire revenues are applied to the maintenance of schools. Great care should be taken to preserve the same economy now practiced in the disbursement of this fund, and radical changes in a law that has worked well should always be avoided. It is a subject of pride to every citizen that with all the difficulties we have encountered—amid poverty, death, and desolation, occasioned by our savage foes—the people, with great unanimity, have provided the necessary means to educate the rising generation, and upon no other subject are they so thoroughly united.

The legislature of 1875 made an extensive revision of the school act, but without changing its general essentials. The rate of Territorial school taxation was now fixed at 15 cents per hundred as against 10 cents in the act of 1871 and 25 cents in the act of 1873. The county school tax was fixed at 35 cents on the hundred as against 50 cents in 1871 and 25 cents in 1873; the pay of the county superintendents was continued at $100 per year. The law of 1875 provided also that a county board, of which the county superintendent was to be the chairman, be appointed "for the purpose of examining applicants and granting certificates of qualification to teachers" covering spelling, reading, grammar, arithmetic, geography, physiology, "and such other studies as may be by said board deemed necessary."[1]

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[1] From Rept. U. S. Commis. of Educ., 1875, p. 469.

[2] Tucson Public School Report, 1893–94, p. 26.

Under the recommendations of Gov. Safford the first compulsory school act was passed in 1875.[2] It was, however, a mild one. It required children between 8 and 14 to attend a public school for at least 16 weeks in each school year, but there were numerous exemptions. They might be taught in private schools or at home, and were released from the obligation to attend if they lived more than 2 miles from the schoolhouse. As a matter of fact, the children were generally as willing to attend school as the people were to furnish schoolhouses. It was sometimes even impossible to enforce the act because of the lack of accommodations.

The most successful years of this period, the time when the schools reached their high-water mark, was in 1875 and 1876.[3]

The actual accomplishments of the schools during that time, as reported by Gov. Safford, show that there were 2,508 children of school age in the first of these years and 2,955 in the second. The enrollment was 568 and 1,213, respectively. Men still predominated as teachers, and in 1876 received on an average $110 per month of 28 days; for the same period women averaged $90. In 1875 the State tax produced $4,690, the local tax $9,232, and other funds $14,837, making a total of $28,760; in 1875–76 the total was $31,449. In 1875 the total expenses were $24,152; in 1876, $28,744. One schoolhouse was erected in Prescott, costing $17,339.30; one was built in Tucson out of private contributions costing $9,781.96. It was thought—

> that very nearly 50 per cent of the children in the Territory can now read and write. Every district in which there are sufficient children is supplied with a good free school. Many schoolhouses have been erected that would do credit to the older States. Considering the short time schools have been established and the many obstacles they have had to overcome, the situation, it is thought, is very encouraging.[4]

The relations of church and state had not yet been definitely settled, however. So earnest was Gov. Safford in his effort to maintain their separation that he even proposed that the law of exemptions be changed and that church property, except such as was used for schools and hospitals, be subject to taxation.[1]

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[1] Sess. Laws, 1875, pp. 80–90.

[2] Sess. Laws, 1875, pp. 40–42.

[3] See reports of Gov. Safford to the United States Commissioner of Education and printed in his reports as follows: 1870, p. 318; 1871, p. 377; 1872, pp. 365–366; 1873, pp. 425–428; 1874, pp. 461–462; 1875, pp. 467–469; 1876, pp. 431–433; 1877, p. 275. The Commissioner of Education gives these years as running for 1874–75 and 1875–76, but Gov. Safford repeats them as of January to December, 1875 and 1876.

[4] Rept. U. S. Commis. of Educ., 1876, pp. 431–432. See also Gov. Safford's annual reports on the schools for 1875 and 1876 (Tucson, 1877).

The setting in which Gov. Safford found himself shows that his exhortation against sectarian influence was not out of place. The Territory had celebrated its entrance on responsibility by giving public funds to a church institution, and in 1875 an effort to divide the public funds in the same manner had been defeated, not without effort. Says McCrea:[2]

> In regard to the final settlement of the question we have this statement of the governor: "At this session (1875) an attempt was made to divide the school fund for the benefit of sectarian schools. The measure, though ardently supported by the chief justice of the Territory (Judge E. F. Dunne), was defeated by a large majority in the legislature."[3] Of this struggle, fraught with so much of good or ill for the future of the schools, not a word is recorded in the journals of the assembly that settled it. Happily for Arizona, it was settled right, though that Territory then and there parted from New Mexico in educational policy.

Gov. Safford resigned his office in April, 1877, on account of ill health, and ceased to be superintendent of public schools. But to this interest he was true to the end. To the legislature of 1877 he said, in review of the past and in exhortation for the future:

> The education of the rising generation has kept steady pace with the increase of population and wealth. This is a very marked and gratifying decline in illiteracy, and from the present efficiency and prosperity of the school system a continued or ever [*sic*] greater decline in illiteracy may confidently be expected. This large increase of revenue has been found necessary to supply the constant demand for new schools, the number of these having increased from 9, as reported two years ago, to 19. It is believed that the revenue referred to will be found sufficient to maintain the school system and provide for the constantly increasing demands upon it. After watching carefully the present school law during the past two years, I am of the opinion that in the main it meets the requirements as well as any law that can be devised. School laws, of all others, should be changed as seldom as possible.

Then follows an exhortation to guard the school as a "sacred trust" and to keep it "free from sectarian or political influences," for—

> to surrender this system and yield to a division of the school fund upon sectarian grounds could only result in the destruction of the general plan for the

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[1] Jours. Ninth Legislative Assembly, 1877, p. 44.

[2] McCrea, in Long's Report for 1907–8, pp. 95–96.

[3] Judge Dunne's address was entitled: "Our Public Schools: Are They Free or Are They Not?" It was delivered in the hall of the House of Representatives in February, 1875, and was first published in the San Francisco Monitor and in the New York Freeman's Journal. It was then republished in pamphlet form (New York, 1875, O., pp. 32). As a result of his arguments, the introduction states that "a bill was introduced in the legislature providing for corporate schools such as Catholics desire. It came within one vote of passing in the council." In this lecture Judge Dunne also opposed compulsory-attendance laws. In both cases he based his arguments on the right of individual liberty.

education of the masses, and would lead, as it always has wherever tried, to the education of the few and the ignorance of the many.[1]

The legislature of 1877 was mindful of the governor's injunction against too much legislative tinkering; only a single school law was passed this session, and it provided for a school census once in two years and required the district trustees to make full reports. The school year was now to begin on December 16; 5 days were made a week and 20 days a month, and no school might receive any benefits under the act unless its teachers had been "duly examined, approved, and employed by legal authority."[2]

But the heyday of the schools had passed for a time; the guiding hand was being removed. Gov. Safford was succeeded by Gov. John P. Hoyt, who was compiling a code for the Territory and had other interests, and the schools soon showed the ill effects. In 1876-77 Gov. Hoyt could report only 903 pupils in school, as against 1,213 for the previous year, with an average attendance of 580 against 900. The schools had increased from 21 to 28, the teachers from 21 to 31, the length of term to 190 days, but the pay of men teachers had fallen from $110 to $100 and that of women from $90 to $50. This was in keeping with income and expenditure; the former had decreased from $31,449 to $20,708; the latter from $28,744 to $18.407.[3]

III. PROGRESS UP TO 1879—BEGINNINGS IN THE CITIES.

The year 1877 may be counted as something of an era in Arizona. Gov. Safford left the Territory in a prosperous condition. The Indians had in the main been pacified, although outbreaks occurred after this date; the railroad was coming in from the west; many rich mines were being discovered, and prospectors were swarming into the Territory; since there was safety from the Indians, stockmen were bringing in herds of cattle and sheep to graze on fresh pastures, and the export and import trade was growing rapidly. The section north of the Gila received the bulk of this immigration, and this change in the balance of power was signalized by the removal of the capital from Tucson back to Prescott. At this date Mexican representation in the assembly practically ceased. In matters of education also a change was coming; on the one hand, a reaction had set in, but this was not clearly apparent till the guiding spirit of Gov. Safford was removed; on the other hand, the larger schools, like that at Prescott which had hitherto paid all its expenses as it went, now discounted the future by selling bonds to meet the cost of building schoolhouses.

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[1] See Jours. Ninth Legislative Assembly, Arizona, 1877, pp. 30-32.

[2] Sess. Laws, 1877, ch. 20, pp. 14, 15.

[3] Rept. U. S. Commis. of Educ., 1877, p. 275.

Having summarized statistically the educational progress made throughout the Territory under the administration of Gov. Safford up to his resignation in 1877, it may be of interest to say a word on the particular centers in which school work was then best developed, giving some notice also of the leading teachers, for whatever there was of local, as well as of Territorial school growth, was due in the main to the enthusiasm of Gov. Safford.

It appears that the first general survey of the school facilities of the Territory was made in 1874. In that year there was issued, under the direction of the legislature, a brief history and summary of "The Territory of Arizona," compiled by Gov. Safford.[1] That pamphlet shows the school development of each town, and indicates further that the public school entered upon a field entirely unoccupied by private enterprise:

Phoenix.—A good schoolhouse has been erected here, and a most excellent free school is now being taught and is attended by about 40 pupils. Six miles below, another school district has been organized and a schoolhouse erected. A free school has been open in this district four months during the year.

Florence.—The inhabitants have just completed a good schoolhouse, and a free school is now open, which is attended by about 40 pupils.

Cerbat.—A free school has been open in this place during six months of the year.

Tucson.—There are two public free schools in successful operation in charge of able and experienced teachers. The daily average attendance is about 75, and the number is constantly increasing.

Prescott.—A good public free school is now in operation in charge of a most excellent teacher; the daily average attendance is about 40, and a good schoolhouse has been erected at a cost of $2,000.

Arizona City.—A good schoolhouse has been erected and a free public school in charge of an experienced teacher is now being taught. The number of children requires another teacher, and one has already been engaged.

Ehrenberg.—A free school has been open in this place three months during the present year, and it is anticipated that it will be kept open at least six months during the year to come. McCrea says that this school was opened in 1872 by Miss Mary E. Post, of Yuma.

In 1879 Col. Hodge made a record of all the schools of the Territory. There were then public schools at Yuma and Ehrenberg, Mineral Park, Cerbat, Prescott, Williamson Valley, Verde, Walnut Creek, Walnut Grove, Chino Valley, Kirkland Valley, Peeples Valley, Wickenburg, Phoenix, Florence, Tucson, Tres Alamos (on the

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[1] Safford, A. P. K.: The Territory of Arizona; a brief history and summary. Tucson, 1874, pp. 6–10.

San Pedro), Safford, and a few other points. There were Catholic schools at Yuma and Tucson, and Indian schools had been established by the Federal Government at San Carlos and Sacaton.[1]

The opening of the public schools in the various towns in the Territory, according to McCrea, McClintock, and the school reports on which these later writers are based, may be summarized briefly for convenience.[2]

Apparently the oldest schools in the Territory, both in the matter of actual age and in that of practical continuity, are those of Tucson. McCrea says:

> Under the law of 1868 or, as some claim, by private subscription, a public school was opened at Tucson, probably the first in the Territory, in the spring of 1869, by Augustus Brichta. The school term lasted six months, for two of which Mr. Brichta never received any pay, and 55 Mexican boys were enrolled. The school room was 25 by 40 feet, with a dirt roof and a dirt floor and no furniture except a few rudely constructed benches. The teacher found it difficult to obtain schoolbooks. There were no geographies in the school, and the pupils relied solely on the teacher for a knowledge of the earth beyond what they could see of it. Mr. Brichta was a man of character and ability and of prominence as a clerk in the legislative assembly, both before and after his experience as a schoolmaster in the Old Pueblo.

Apparently the next school in Tucson was that of John Spring, which was opened early in March, 1871. Of this school McCrea remarks:

> The term continued for 15 months, and 138 boys were enrolled, most of whom were Mexicans. The attendance for the term was excellent, reaching 78 per cent of the enrollment.
>
> Few of the pupils knew any English, and the teacher had to go over their lessons with them in Spanish before trying to teach them in English. A few of the older pupils had attended school for brief periods in Mexico or had received a little private instruction. The entire 138 seem to have been present by the third day. How one teacher could handle so many can be explained only by their known gentleness of nature, their general willingness to obey, and the constant support of the teacher's authority by the parents.
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> The school facilities were of the most primitive character. The schoolroom was a long adobe structure with dirt roof and dirt floor and homemade benches and desks in one piece, notable in no way except for solidity and liability to shed splinters.
>
> It took much tact and persistence on the part of the teacher to break up truancy and keep tardiness within bounds and to induce pupils to "put in their appearance washed, combed, and brushed." The process was accelerated by reporting truancy to all parents and by the teacher taking some of the negligent boys to the school well and assisting them in their morning ablutions.
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> Gov. Safford showed his interest in this educational experiment in his capital in various ways. He presented the school with two dozen Ollendorf's Grammars, which were very useful for the more advanced class. Mr. Spring does not fail to pay a hearty tribute to the man who made the school possible. He

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[1] McClintock, James H.: History of Arizona, II, p. 497.

[2] See McClintock, James H.: History of Arizona, II, 496, 567, 590; McCrea, passim, and superintendent's report for 1881, pp. 38–44.

says: "In conclusion I beg leave to say that all my hard work was made lighter and all my efforts were made more efficient by the constant kind help and advice of Gov. A. P. K. Safford, whose memory this and all future generations should forever revere as 'Father of Our Public Schools.'"[1]

The next heard of the Tucson schools was in the summer of 1872, when a girls' school, which later became a part of the public-school system, was opened by Mrs. L. C. Hughes, wife of the probate judge of Pima County, who later became governor of the Territory. On February 4, 1873, this school received an official visit from the legislature, and during that year Gov. Safford, seeing that the schools had been carried on at irregular periods and by persons who had other vocations than teaching, and seeing, according to McCrea—

> the great need of trained and experienced teachers and of continuity of effort, determined to secure such teachers for the schools of Tucson, if possible, and then to see that the schools were carried on for a fixed term each year. Through Surveyor General Wasson he got into communication with Miss Maria Wakefield, a teacher in the schools of Stockton, Cal., and was able to persuade her and a companion, Miss Harriet Bolton, to attempt the trip to the new land of promise. I have been able to secure an account both of their journey and their reception at Tucson from the daughter of Mrs. E. N. Fish, formerly Miss Wakefield, which account is approved by her mother and is given herewith:
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> "In 1873 my mother was teaching in the public schools of Stockton, Cal., when she received a letter from Gov. Safford asking her to come to Tucson, bringing a competent primary teacher with her, to open the public school. This letter also advised them to start immediately, as the Apaches were then in the eastern part of the Territory and travel was comparatively safe. Accordingly, on October 26, they left Stockton for San Francisco, where they took a steamer for San Diego. From there, after five days and nights of continuous stage riding, the longest stop being 20 minutes to change horses and partake of the wretched food provided at the stations, they arrived in Tucson. Few can realize the terrors of such a journey, with the bright moonlight transforming every giant cactus into an armed Apache and every clump of brush into an ambush. Each driver contributed a new lot of stories of the horrible deeds of the Indians, pointing out here and there along the way where this freight train was captured and the men murdered, and that stage taken, and that family massacred, keeping those two terror-stricken women constantly, by day and night, on the lookout for Apaches. They did not then know that Apaches do not attack by night.
>
> "The good people of Tucson had arranged two very comfortable rooms for them. Gov. Safford and his good friend, Surveyor General Wasson, left nothing undone to assist in the difficult task of establishing a public school. The priests were bitter in their denunciations, and were formidable antagonists, even going so far as to threaten parents if they allowed their children to attend the public school. Gov. Safford was generous almost beyond his salary in giving books and clothes to needy children to enable them to attend school. Above all, the one great desire of Gov. Safford's heart was the welfare of the public school." * * *

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[1] Superintendent's Report, Arizona, 1908, pp. 86–87. See also historical sketch in Tucson Public School Report, 1893–94, pp. 30–32. Under date of June 17, 1872, Gov. Safford sent $30 to the school trustees of Prescott as a gift from his brother, A. B. Safford, of Cain, Ill., "to help build" a schoolhouse there. Arizona Miner, July 20, 1872.

The success of the schools during this period was marked. One teacher had charge of the boys, the other of the girls, in separate rooms. There was an average attendance of 50 boys and 25 girls. Nor did those teachers lose their interest in education when they left the schoolroom, for not long after we find one of them a leader in a successful effort to supply the town with a much-needed school building, and we may be sure the other heartily seconded her efforts.

This effort grew directly out of the struggle in 1875 over the question of State support of sectarian schools. After this question had been definitely settled the need for better school facilities was more keenly realized. The effort to secure a better public-school building in Tucson has been graphically told by McCrea:

Nothing was more characteristic of this assembly [1875] than the following resolution, offered by Hon. S. R. De Long, of Tucson, and readily adopted by the council of January 15, 1875; "*Resolved*, That the use of this hall is hereby offered to the ladies of Tucson who propose giving a social party on Thursday evening next, 21st instant, for the purpose of raising funds to be appropriated to the building of a public schoolhouse." The party was duly given and was so well managed by the ladies in charge, Mrs. Lord and Mrs. Fish, that $1,300 was realized from it. A second dancing party netted $1,100, and a third $1,000. It is said that at one of the parties given a cake was sold and resold until the proceeds from the sale reached more than $200. This money was turned over to the school board, composed of Estevan Ochoa, R. N. Leatherwood, and Samuel Hughes. Mr. Ochoa either donated, or sold at a nominal figure, the lot needed. The lumber used in the great porch in front was donated by the Army officers at Fort Grant and was hauled free of charge by the teams of Tully and Ochoa more than 100 miles. At last the Congress Street building, an adobe structure of three rooms, was completed at a cost of $9,782 and was for a brief time the best school building in Arizona.

Of the later history of the Tucson schools, Prof. McCrea continues:

In the fall of 1874 Prof. W. B. Horton, who was a Scotchman by birth and a graduate of a college of Edinburgh, was elected principal of the Tucson Public School.[1] During the first year he was supplied with two assistants, one to teach the girls and one to aid him in teaching the boys. The schools greatly prospered under his management. Although he began school work in Arizona later than Prof. Sherman, he is worthy in every way to be ranked with him. For the next five years he continued to demonstrate the value of the public school as a civilizing agency, under circumstances far less favorable than were then supplied at Prescott.

Prof. Horton remained at Tuscon for more than six years, being succeeded in February, 1881, by George C. Hall,[2] who says that Horton was the real founder of the public schools there. Prof. Hall adds:

To his hands was committed a difficult task, and to properly estimate the value of his work one should understand and appreciate the obstacles and difficulties with which he had to contend in conducting a cosmopolitan school in which there was more or less race prejudice and where, in the minds of certain members of the community at large, there existed an unfavorable opinion of our public system of instruction. The instability of society, incident to all frontier cities, and the rude appliances with which he began his work were further obstacles. Many young men of this city and other places in the Territory owe to him all that makes them useful members of society. Six years' faithful service in the schools of a city should entitle a teacher to the gratitude of its people.

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[1] So says McCrea. Ex-Supt. Long says that the statement as to Horton's birth and education is an error, and that he was a native of Georgia.

[2] Hall served from 1881 to 1884. For list of later superintendents see Tucson Public School Reports, 1893–94, p. 32.

Gov. Safford mentions a school as being taught in Prescott as early as 1870 by S. C. Rogers, but nothing is known of its subsequent history. Of education in Prescott Prof. McCrea says:

> Having set the schools of Tucson in motion, the governor turned his attention to northern Arizona. In 1873 Prescott, which was the center of a considerable American population, became much interested in education. Capable teachers were hard to secure. In that year Gov. Safford induced Prof. Moses H. Sherman to come to Prescott to be principal of the public school. It is claimed that the governor even borrowed and sent Prof. Sherman the money necessary to meet the expense of the long and costly trip from Vermont to Prescott. The new principal was a graduate of the New York State Normal School at Oswego, and proved a most successful teacher. Under his management was inaugurated the first graded school in Arizona. The school grew so rapidly that a new and better building was demanded. The work of raising funds by popular subscription—the only method available—began in 1874, and the building, which was a fine two-story brick, was completed in 1876, costing, when fully furnished, more than $17,000, and capable of seating 200 pupils. In providing this building, by far the best in the Territory for several years to come, the Prescott people found themselves in debt, and the school district officials thought best to ask the legislative assembly for authority to issue bonds to meet the remaining indebtedness.

The first public school was opened in Phoenix, September 5, 1872, by J. D. Daroche. This school was located on the present First Avenue, just south of Washington Street. Later a little adobe building was erected on North Center Street and served as the permanent school home for some years. The salary of the first teachers, of whom there was a rapid succession, was $100 per month. The head of the school in 1879–80 was Robert L. Long, later State superintendent.

The first school was opened in Tombstone in February, 1880, by Miss Lucas, "in a little room with a dirt floor and a mud roof. Nine was the number of pupils in attendance the first day, which was increased to about 40 before the close of the term. Miss Lucas was succeeded by Miss McFarland. The school grew with the growing town." The trustees began the erection of a school building, 50 by 30 feet, which was ready in January, 1881. A second teacher was employed, and the enrollment that year reached 128, with an average attendance of 83.[1]

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[1] Superintendent's Report for 1881, pp. 40–42.

McCrea reports (p. 92) schools in Florence, Safford, Ehrenberg, Yuma, and other towns in 1873. In 1879 the schools of Florence were said to be in a flourishing condition.[1]

The first schoolhouse in Globe was built in 1880 in the southern part of what was then the camp and was placed in charge of G. J. Scanlan.[2]

So much for the development of the schools in separate centers in the Territory. Although evolved under a Territorial law, there was as yet little unity among them, for they were largely supported by local funds, there was little connection with one another, and solidarity of feeling had not developed. A new stage of development and progress began with the school law of 1879.

It seems proper to add as a fitting close to this chapter the appreciation of Gov. Safford's work written by the first historian of education in Arizona. Prof. McCrea,[3] in concluding his estimate of this period, says:

> Whatever might have been his feeling in the matter, Gov. Safford had reasons for being proud of his work for education in Arizona. He was a great governor in many respects, but he was greatest of all in his labors for the public school. He had been able to lead an unwilling assembly to adopt an efficient school law, and to modify it only as needed. From a scanty population scattered far and near, and constantly harassed by the Indians, he had secured liberal appropriations for schools. Though unused to American institutions, the strong foreign element had been won over by his wisdom and patience, and the Americans were glad to follow so able a leader. At the close of his work he could point to a score of teachers employed, and to as many schoolrooms erected by the voluntary contributions of the people. Since 1871 more than $120,000 had been raised for school purposes, yet he left the Territory to his successor practically free of debt, a happy condition it has never since known. But of all the success of this period was the great heart and strong purpose of a man anxious to see a good start made on the work, not yet completed, of making good Americans of some very unpromising material through the agency of the public school. The idea seems to have been his religion, and right well did he live it. Although no school building bears his name in the town he did so much to rescue from oblivion, he will live in the affections of the people of the Territory as the "Father of the Arizona Public School."

To this high but well-deserved praise the present writer would give his most unqualified assent.

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[1] Rept. U. S. Commis. of Educ., 1879.

[2] Ex relatione, R. L. Long.

[3] McCrea, in Long's Report for 1908, pp. 100, 101.

Chapter IV.

THE SUPERINTENDENT MADE AN INDEPENDENT OFFICER—ADMINISTRATIONS OF SHERMAN AND HORTON, 1879–1885.

As shown in an earlier chapter of this study, the development of the public schools began with the administration of Gov. Safford. He created the Arizona schools and then became the Moses to lead them out of the wilderness toward a better organization, with increasing appreciation of their value, growing attendance, and developing resources. Unfortunately his work was retarded by ill health, so that he resigned the governorship about April, 1877, and was succeeded by John P. Hoyt as acting governor. Then came, on June 12, 1878, the appointment of John C. Frémont as governor. It has been said that Frémont never regarded this appointment "as worthy of his ability and fame," but, however regarded, the evidence is that Govs. Hoyt and Frémont were of little direct service in advancing the cause of the schools.

I. THE ACT OF 1879 AND THE NEW DEVELOPMENT.

The progress of education in Arizona during the period beginning about 1878 was, as McCrea points out (p. 101), more closely connected with the material development of the Territory than with the personnel of the officers, as had been the case during the earlier period. Rich mines were being discovered, and two railroads now traversed the Territory from east to west. These roads made its mines accessible, opened its resources, and led to great immigration. The population more than doubled in the eighties, and more people meant more school children, more school revenue, and of necessity better schools.

The law of 1879 made it more possible to collect this increased revenue. This act was itself an innovation and improvement on the earlier school acts. Its most important change was one which provided that a superintendent of public instruction should be appointed by the governor "by and with the consent of the legislative council." In 1880 his successor was to be elected by popular vote; he was put under a $2,000 bond; was to hold office for two years; and received under this law a salary of $1,000, which in 1881 was increased to $2,000.[1]

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[1] Session laws, 1881, ch. 33.

A Territorial tax of 15 cents on the $100 was to be levied, and the county board of supervisors was ordered to levy a county school tax of not less than 50 nor more than 80 cents on the $100, which "shall be added to the county tax and collected in the same manner and paid into the county treasury as a special fund."

The Territorial board of education was reconstituted, and was now made up of the superintendent as president and secretary, with the governor and Territorial treasurer as the other members. Their duties were of the same character as those of the earlier board, while a bid for incoming teachers was made by providing that "such professional teachers as may be found upon examination, or by diplomas from other States or Territories requiring similar qualifications, to possess the requisite scholarship and culture" might have their diplomas countersigned by the Territorial superintendent and these then became valid for life unless formally revoked.

The superintendent was required, among other duties, to apportion Territorial school funds according to the number of children 6 to 21 years of age; he was to make an annual visit to each county and publish an annual report. It was made the duty of the county superintendent to distribute the county funds to the school districts in proportion to attendance during the three months previous.

In other respects the school law remained largely as it was, except that the salary of the probate judges when acting as county school superintendents was raised from $100 to $250 per year, and in 1881 (ch. 33) this was still further increased by dividing the counties into four classes according to the number of school districts and paying the superintendents from $250 to $1,000 per annum, according to the size of their territory.

Another section of this law—an echo of the struggle in 1877 against the proposed union of church and state—was the thirty-eighth, which declares:

> No books, tracts, or papers of a sectarian or denominational character shall be used or introduced in any school established under the provisions of this act; nor shall sectarian or denominational doctrine be taught therein; nor shall any school whatever receive any of the public school funds which has not been taught in accordance with the provisions of this act.

It is clear that this new law reorganized the school system in a way which looked toward greater centralization and efficiency. The Territorial superintendent was now a separate official, with large supervisory powers. The county superintendency was not yet a separate office, but large supervisory powers were put into the hands of the probate judge, if he could find time and place to exercise them, but under the circumstances and with the large counties this was a practical impossibility.

In each school district there was a local board of three trustees who provided for, controlled, and directed the school. Each set of officers made a report to the next higher. The funds came from Territorial and county sources.[1] When these were insufficient to provide a school for three months, the local district was required to make up the deficit as well as provide the schoolhouse and furniture. In such cases anything more than the three months' term depended on the will of the local district, which had to be expressed by a two-thirds vote. This was a weak point in the system and struck the scattered country districts most heavily. The school term in the towns soon ran up in length, but those of the country schools were low, often perilously close to the three months' limit, or even below it.

There was as yet no general law under which towns or school districts might issue bonds for use in building schoolhouses. The first of such issues seems to have been that of Prescott, in 1877, for $7,200, made under a special act.[2] In 1879 similar special acts were passed in favor of Phoenix for $15,000,[3] and Tucson for $20,000,[4] and in 1883 Tombstone secured an issue for $15,000.[5]

The only other enactment of the session of 1879 bearing on education was one chartering the Arizona Development Co., which, under color of aiding "in the construction of capitol buildings and for the support of the public schools of the Territory," provided for the running of a lottery in the Territory, the governor being made commissioner to superintend the drawings, while 10 per cent of the prizes distributed were to be reserved for the use of the Territory. It was perfectly evident, however, that the real purpose of this act was not to build the capitol nor to advance the schools but to permit the existence of a lottery.[6]

It is now desirable to follow so far as possible the fortunes of the schools under the act of 1879. It may be noticed at once that the school system so patiently and laboriously built up by Gov. Safford did not command the respect of Gov. Frémont sufficiently to give it a place in his message to the assembly, either in 1879 or 1881. McCrea remarks that although Gov. Frémont was a man of liberal education "he exhibited but little interest in the question of schools in Arizona." McCrea found but one reference by Frémont to the school system, which he then generously characterized as being in "admirable condition."

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[1] Ch. 45, 1879, provided that one-half the money collected on licenses for gambling, other than village licenses, should go to the county school fund. The school act of 1883 gave all "fines, forfeitures, and gambling licenses" to the county school fund, except such as were collected in incorporated towns and villages. Escheats under this act went to the Territorial school fund.

[2] Session Laws, 1877, ch. 37.

[3] Session Laws, 1879, ch. 17.

[4] Ibid., ch. 25.

[5] Session Laws, 1883, ch. 13.

[6] Session Laws, 1879, ch. 16. It was repealed by Session Laws, 1881, ch. 20. A vigorous effort was made in 1887 to reenact a similar law, but it was defeated by the veto of Gov. Zulick. See Council Jour., 1887, pp. 199–208.

II. SHERMAN BECOMES THE FIRST INDEPENDENT TERRITORIAL SUPERINTENDENT.

Closely following his own accession to office, and within a few days after the enactment of the law of February 14, 1879, Gov. Frémont appointed Prof. Moses H. Sherman as his representative to take over the work of the Territorial school superintendent, which, in earlier years, had been performed by the governor himself[1]—for the purpose of the act of 1871 had been to add this school supervision to the duties of the governor, with no extra pay except an allowance of $500 for traveling. The governor was now relieved of the duty, and the $500 allowed him for expenses was given to his successor as salary. Prof. Sherman was a trained school man; he had been for five years at the head of the Prescott schools, was already at the head of his profession in Arizona, and his entrance on the Territorial superintendency was recognized as an advance by the United States Commissioner of Education, who said in his report for 1878 (p. 268):

> Even the few statistics received show the advantage of having a superintendent who can give his whole attention to school work, as was the case for the first time in 1878.

Prof. Sherman's term of office extended from February, 1879, to January 11, 1881, and was continued—by a popular election, in 1880—from January, 1881, to January, 1883. During these years Supt. Sherman did not, however, devote all of his time to Territorial education. He remained principal of the schools of Prescott, and he gave to the Territorial schools such time only as he could spare from his local school duties. Certainly Territorial duties were of less importance from the financial side, and it has been said even that the Territorial superintendency was during this administration little more than a sinecure.

McCrea remarks that the duties of the Territorial superintendency "were mainly of a clerical nature;" and, therefore, that Supt. Sherman was not compelled to relinquish his position as principal of the public schools of Prescott, but continued to serve both the town and the Territory until 1883. McCrea believed that Supt. Sherman's "reputation for efficient work for educational interests in Arizona would no doubt have been greater had he confined his services to one or the other, instead of trying to serve both." The Territorial work may have been made clerical from choice, but was not so from necessity. There was sufficient authority under the law of 1879, for the superintendent to travel throughout the Territory and to supervise not in name and form merely, but in reality.

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[1] There are indications that Sherman had acted in this capacity before his formal appointment, but ex-Supt. Long thinks that this was not the case.

Indeed, the progress, which was soon apparent, following the appointment of Sherman, seems to prove that there was at least some supervision, for the slump of 1876–77 was soon overcome, and as early as 1877–78, the superintendent could show that the schools were already on the upward grade. In the latter year he reported 3,089 youth of school age, of whom 2,740 were enrolled, giving a percentage of 88, although the average daily attendance was put down at 890, or 32 per cent of the enrollment. The length of the term was 124 days, as against 190 for 1876–77; the teachers numbered 37 as against 31; the pay of the men fell from $100 per month to $91; but that of the women rose from $50 to $74. The total expenditures equaled the total income, which was $21,396.

If comparison should be made of the school situation in 1873 and 1880, great progress would be noted. The school enumeration was 4 times as great, the enrollment 10 times, and school property 16 times. Schoolrooms had increased from 11 to 101, and teachers from 14 to 101, but salaries had fallen from $100 per month to $83 for men and to $70 for women.

Of Sherman's work for the Territorial schools, McCrea continues:

> The new superintendent of public instruction entered upon his duties with energy and enthusiasm, and the schools in the next two years showed a wonderful growth. It is difficult to say what part of this was due to the efforts of the superintendent and what part was the result of the favorable industrial conditions in Arizona and the considerable immigration into the Territory.
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> In 1880 the favorable report of the year before was improved upon in most particulars. Though the number of pupils seeking to attend school was far greater than the accommodations afforded, no effort was made to enforce the compulsory law. The short school terms in many of the schools seriously interfered with their usefulness. Most of the town schools were taught from 150 to 200 days, while the county school terms seldom exceeded 100 days, and were sometimes as brief as 40 days. The lack of sufficient funds in the rural schools, and the too frequent changes of teachers and of the county superintendents, were reported by the superintendent to be the greatest obstacles in the way of the progress of the public schools.

It will be recalled that while public lands had been set aside by Congress for the endowment of the schools when the Territory became a State, none of this land had as yet become available for schools. Gov. Safford had sought authority for the Territory to sell some of these lands, but had failed. Supt. Sherman now sought to bring the matter again before Congress, with the idea of selling the lands and reinvesting the proceeds in productive securities, but failed. Under the act of April 7, 1896, the Territory was first given authority to lease its lands; authority to sell came only with statehood.

Supt. Sherman made reports on the public schools under his authority for the years 1879 and 1880. These are summarized in the reports for the United States Commissioner of Education for 1879-80 and 1880-81. The progress reported for 1879-80 over 1878-79 was very gratifying and more or less uniform, except in length of term. In 1878-79 the latter is given as 165 days, while the next year it went down to 109. In explanation it was said that the city and village schools were taught from 150 to 200 days, while the terms of the country schools were seldom over 100, and sometimes as low as 40 days. There was also a decrease of $1 in the average monthly salary, from $84 to $83. The income under the law of 1879 was more than twice what it had been under the old law. In 1878-79 the income and expenditures were, respectively, $32,421 and $29,200; in 1879-80 they were $67,028 and $61,172.

The enrollment in 1879-80 was one-fourth larger than in 1878-79; the average attendance was one-half larger; and the per cent of attendance on enrollment rose from 63.4 per cent in 1878-79 to 67.7 per cent in 1879-80.[1]

In some districts there were no schools, and large numbers of children never attended school at all, and yet the accommodations were so poor and so meager that it was impossible to take care of all who applied for admission; it was therefore still impossible to enforce the compulsory law of 1875.

Sherman's report for the period of his administration as a direct representative of the people, 1881-1883, has been seen. Like all other officers engaged in similar work, he has the usual complaint that reports to him were incomplete, and that the county superintendents, tied down as they were by their duties as probate judges, could not go out among the schools and learn for themselves, but must depend on such information as might be sent in by individual teachers; hence the general report necessarily fell short of showing the actual condition of schools, but with the aid of reports from the various counties, he is able to give a general survey of the Territory as a whole. He points out that the main difficulty was in the sparsely settled rural district, with its short term. This term was often only three months, the minimum requirement to meet the law, and was not only too short for the good of the child, but was in proportion unduly costly.

In 1882 the superintendent reported "good progress," but the difficulties were the same as ever. The probate judge's time and attention were too much filled to make him a good school officer; besides, this office demanded a man particularly trained and qualified. Progress had been made in the erection of schoolhouses, but the expense of good buildings had fallen on those directly interested, and this indicates that houses were built either by private subscription or by a local tax authorized by a two-thirds vote.

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[1] Rept. U. S. Commis. of Educ., 1880, pp. 852-855.

Nor was the method of apportioning the Territorial funds producing the best results. Under the law these were apportioned according to school population, and in consequence—

> the bulk of it goes to the larger towns, and the outside districts seldom have enough to keep their schools going for more than three or four months in the year. I would suggest that the Territorial school money to which each county is entitled be divided equally among all the districts. This plan would aid very materially the outside districts, and would work no injury on the schools in the towns and villages. In nearly every town of any importance in the Territory, such as Globe and Tucson, there is an abundance of school money, far more than will be required for school purposes for the present year. Such an amendment, changing the manner of apportioning the Territorial school funds, would work no hardship on populous towns, and would build up the outside districts.[1]

It was urged that boards of school supervisors were sometimes indifferent to expenses, and even in this uncontaminated region it was felt necessary to warn districts to get the best men possible for school trustees and "that they do not change for the mere sake of rotation."

The superintendent was able to show clearly marked evidence of progress. Yavapai County, with its 28 school districts and its 2,086 pupils, claimed to be the leader in matters educational. In 1882 the Territorial board adopted a uniform series of textbooks. "Heretofore, in some districts, there were often as many as three or four different kinds of readers. This made the labor of the teacher much harder and the number of classes greater." The report for 1882 adds the gratifying information: "In nearly every district in the Territory a cheap, uniform set of books is now in use."

In January, 1882, a printed list of questions was furnished by the superintendent to each of the county boards of examiners, which served as a general and uniform Territorial examination for all teachers, and showed that the school courses were expanding. It included geography and "other natural sciences," grammar, botany, theory and practice of teaching, arithmetic, United States history and constitution, reading, physiology and the laws of health, and orthography.

About the same time, and under the same authority, the superintendent published a manual of school work which was to serve teachers as a guide in their duties. The school course there outlined covered a total school period of 8½ years of 10 months each. It was divided into what may be called the primary and grammar-grade courses. The primary work began with what was called the fifth grade and went backwards. The first grade covered two and a half years, or five terms, and was followed by an advanced grade that covered two years. The last term of the first grade included reading, spelling, arithmetic, language, geography, writing, drawing, history, physiology, and philosophy. The first term of the advanced grade dealt with reading, writing, history, composition, physiology, algebra, and philosophy; while the third and fourth terms of this course covered reading, drawing, history, composition and literature, physiology, algebra, geometry, political economy, chemistry, and bookkeeping.

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[1] Reports for 1881 and 1882, pp. 8–9.

It is evident that the pupils who were able to follow these courses to their completion would be well prepared for real high-school work. Along with this guide went a series of suggestions to teachers on methods of teaching.

At the time covered by this report (1881 and 1882) the town situation seems to have been in general very satisfactory. In Prescott the attendance was larger than ever before; "the scholars seem to study for the sake of learning"; but there was a great drawback in the irregularity of attendance, "as is the case in all frontier towns" and others as well. "The school is being graded as rapidly as possible."

In Tombstone the session of 1881–82 was the second, and started off with 135 pupils the first day. The schoolhouse was divided into two rooms for two teachers, but was not big enough; the Turnverein Hall was rented, and a third teacher employed; then the Presbyterian Church and a fourth teacher were secured. The average attendance that year was 188; the several private schools opened the year before now gave place to the public schools, and patent benches were put into the schoolhouse owned by the district. On December 28, 1882, the enrollment was 276, with an average attendance of 240. There were then five teachers in the school, counting the principal. The six grades, as required in the public-school manual (five primary and one advanced), were provided, and the advanced grade "is prepared for high-school work, which it is now doing in part." In this connection Prof. M. H. Sherman, then superintendent of Tombstone, recommended the establishment of a high school, and this seems to have been and is perhaps to be properly counted as the real beginning of advanced educational work in the Territory.

In 1881 Prof. George C. Hall reported the Tucson schools as organized into three divisions: Primary, with four grades; grammar, with four; a high school, with literary and scientific courses covering three years. The pupils were graded, and separate schools for boys and for girls had been abolished. It now has four regular and two special teachers—in Spanish and music. In 1883, $40,000 of short-time bonds for a new schoolhouse were issued.[1] The high school at

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[1] Session Laws of Arizona, 1883, ch. 34.

Tucson dates from 1880; in 1887–88 there were 21 pupils, but no class was graduated till 1893.[1]

At the expiration of his term of office in January, 1883, Prof. M. H. Sherman surrendered the duties of superintendent of public instruction to Prof. William B. Horton. After he left school work, Supt. Sherman was appointed by Gov. Tritle, in 1883, adjutant general to provide against a threatened Apache uprising. Later he became president of a bank in Phoenix, and amassed a fortune from Arizona and California investments. He is still living (1917). McCrea's estimate of Sherman's educational work is somewhat evasive. He says that Sherman's work—

> for the schools of the Territory is somewhat difficult to estimate. Coming into the Territory in 1873 at the request of Gov. Safford, he soon impressed the people of Arizona with his ability and energy, and was given honorable and lucrative employment in school work for many years. His superior business insight, coupled with the excellent opportunities in that early period, enabled him to lay the foundation of a fortune, and to become one of the best-known men of the Territory. He did good work for the public school of Prescott, winning for it a reputation which made it preeminent in the Territory. His work as superintendent of public instruction was mainly clerical, though to some extent administrative. With his constant duties at Prescott for the greater part of the year, there was no chance for visiting the various schools and inspiring the teachers and communities with the enthusiasm so much needed to sustain them in their work. The extent to which he influenced legislative action, for other than his own ends, is somewhat problematic. In some respects he was a worthy successor of Gov. Safford, even if lacking in the disposition to make any considerable sacrifice for the cause of education, as was common with the great executive.[2]

III. HORTON BECOMES SUPERINTENDENT, 1883–1885.

Prof. William B. Horton, the successor of Prof. Moses Hazeltine Sherman and the second Territorial superintendent of public instruction for Arizona, was the first to devote the whole of his time to the duties of his office. He came to Arizona in 1874, where he became a successful teacher. His period of administration as Territorial superintendent was from January, 1883, to January, 1885, and his one published report covers the period from September 1, 1882, to August 31, 1884.

This period was marked as one of renewed activity in school affairs. It began with Gov. Tritle's message to the assembly in January, 1883, when he pointed out that many small communities received no aid because of "the necessity of only organizing schools with large numbers of pupils." He thought that this situation was due to lack of funds, and this to failure to derive any income from school lands.

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[1] See Report Tucson Public Schools, 1896–97, p. 5.

[2] McCrea, loc. cit., pp. 109, 110.

The most important legislative action in 1883 was the school law. which should be considered rather a revision than a new law. McCrea thinks the new provisions were due to Supt. Horton and that they were borrowed from the California law. They are summarized as follows:

The presidency of the Territorial board of education was transferred from the superintendent to the governor; the superintendent was given $500 for traveling and $500 for printing and office expenses, and was to visit each county; the salary of the county superintendents was increased. They were started on a basis of $300 pay for 10 districts, and to this as a basis $25 was added for each additional district, but the office was not yet made distinct from that of probate judge. Particular efforts were made to guard and hedge about the spending of school funds. It was provided that in counties where the school districts numbered 20 or more the superintendent might, in his discretion, hold a teachers' institute of three to five days each year at a total cost of not over $50. All public-school teachers were required to attend, and if school was in session their absence was not counted as time lost. Every county, city, or incorporated town, unless subdivided, formed a school district, but none might be organized with less than 10 pupils or until school had actually commenced in the new district. The local district school trustees were elected annually, and no person was ineligible either to vote or hold the office because of sex. The census marshal took the census every odd year. Unless otherwise provided, all schools were to be divided into primary and grammar schools and were to give instruction in English, in reading, writing, orthography, arithmetic, geography, grammar, history of the United States, elements of physiology and of bookkeeping, vocal music, industrial drawing, "and such other studies as the Territorial board of education may prescribe," and in manners and morals during the entire course. The school day was fixed at six hours, but no pupil under 8 was to be kept in school more than four hours.

The sections on district libraries were new. They provided that 10 per cent of the Territorial school fund up to $200 be apportioned to each district and constitute "a library fund." This fund and "such moneys as may be added thereto by donation" should be spent "in the purchase of school apparatus and books for school libraries." The latter were kept in the schoolhouses and were open to pupils and residents of the district.

The rate of taxation for schools was unchanged, but funds were increased by giving the proceeds of escheats to the Territorial school fund, and the proceeds from fines, forfeitures, and gambling licenses, except in incorporated places, to the county school fund. The right of voting on special district taxes was shifted from "qualified voters" to "taxpayers."

Supt. Horton's published report, covering the period September 1, 1882, to August 31, 1884, shows an essential differentiation in its review from earlier ones. There were signs of general improvement:

> Our teaching force has also increased, there being 45 more teachers than reported last year. Many of our teachers have had the advantages of a normal-school training, and it is a noticeable fact that at least one-half of those who have applied for certificates during the last two years [25 were granted] are graduates of universities or normal schools. The standard of scholarship required for license to teach is being gradually raised throughout the Territory. The county examiners are using commendable zeal in the matter, and are more careful in granting certificates, and the consequence is better teaching ability is coming to the front.

This desirable result was attained notwithstanding the examiners were unpaid and gave their time at financial loss to themselves. Examinations were held three times a year; there were two grades of certificates given, and 75 per cent was the passing mark. For the second grade the applicant was examined on arithmetic (oral and written), grammar (oral and written), orthography, geography, history, methods of teaching, penmanship, composition, and word analysis. To these subjects there were added, for the first-grade certificate, physiology and algebra. These were county certificates; the first grade was good for four years; the second grade for two. A first-grade certificate was necessary to teach the grammar grades.

The new schoolhouses erected during this period were said to be very substantial and well adapted for their purpose:

> Several of them have been built with an eye to beauty of design and finish, as well as to comfort, and are supplied with the latest improved furniture and apparatus. The public-school buildings in Prescott, Phoenix, Tucson, and Tombstone will compare very favorably with those of many of the States or Territories. Florence has nearly completed a substantial school building, and Yuma will soon begin the erection of one. The rural districts have shown an equal desire to have comfortable and attractive school buildings. This is particularly noticeable in the counties of Cochise, Graham, Apache, Yavapai, and Maricopa. The majority of the country schools are now supplied with the necessary school apparatus.

In his report to the Secretary of the Interior, dated September 30, 1883, which may be taken as substantially representing the school year 1882–83, Gov. Tritle gave the number of the schools as follows: Yavapai, 29; Apache, 15; Cochise, 11; Pima and Maricopa, 10 each; Pinal, 7; Graham, 6; Gila, Yuma, and Mohave, 3 each.

By reason of the negligence, indifference, or ignorance of some of the local school trustees, the schools got little supervision from them, and the duties of the county superintendent were such as to leave them "virtually without supervision," for the duties of the probate judge prevented him from being absent from his office for any length of time, even on school duties. The result was that much school money was dissipated or wasted because of this lack of supervision. It was declared that there was "no bar or hindrance to a vast expenditure of school money by dishonest trustees" and it was considered "of the utmost importance that every possible guard be placed around our school fund." The law of 1883 sought to remedy this situation.

The necessity of this will be realized more clearly when it is remarked that in Pima County, for instance, the tax collected for schools "was far in excess of what was necessary." The law required a county tax of not less than 50 cents on the hundred; the Territorial tax was 15 cents; to the county fund was to be added under the acts of 1879 and 1883 the income from fines and gambling licenses, and to the Territorial fund the income from escheated estates. The total income in Pima County in 1882–83 was $26,872, and the school term was five and one-half months. In Pima in 1883–84, $40,000 was raised by district or local taxes, and the total receipts were $85,812. The total expenditures were $62,551, and there was a surplus of more than $24,000. This was the best report from any county; in general the balances were small and not beyond the margin of safety.

Because of the difficulties of travel, no teachers' institutes had been held during the two years, but the superintendent's opinion was that in most of the counties institutes could be held with marked advantage. He thought that in few States or Territories were better salaries paid to teachers in rural districts than in Arizona. No printed report covering the rural districts alone is available, but salaries paid in the counties varied from $60 per month in Apache and $75 in Maricopa and Graham to $95 in Cochise and $99 in Gila. The average for 1882–83 was $80.75, and in 1883–84, $84.90.

The total income of the public schools in the Territory for 1883–84 was $205,901.28, and the expenditures were $161,861.57. In 1883 seven libraries were reported. They had 451 volumes, worth $1,079.10, and an annual expenditure of $114.21. In 1884 there were 32 libraries, with 909 volumes, worth $1,685.47, and an annual expenditure of $618.33.[1]

The textbooks adopted by the board of education on March 21, 1881, and still in use, included Appleton's readers, geographies, and arithmetics; Webster's speller, model copy books; Quackenbos's language lessons, grammar, histories, philosophy, and Composition and Rhetoric; Krusi's drawing; and Appleton's series of Science Primers for chemistry, physics, physical geography, geology, physiology, astronomy, botany, logic, inventional geometry, piano playing, and political economy.

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[1] Pima County reported $2,422 expended for school libraries, which is doubtless an error, for other items of furniture and apparatus are presumably included.

These books were reported to be in general use in the Territory, and in most cases gave satisfaction. They were not furnished free, but "in a number of instances the districts have supplied the children with textbooks from the school fund," and from this custom was deduced an argument for free textbooks in general, which was favored by the superintendent.

During this administration the question of school and university lands became acute. Supt. Sherman had located (December, 1882) the 72 sections of university land in the San Francisco Mountains in a region heavily timbered with pine and valuable only for its timber. These lands had been withdrawn from market, but were subject to depredators, and had been denuded to a certain extent. It was pointed out by the superintendent that they should be placed under the control and management of the proper Territorial authorities to prevent depreciation. It was said that in many cases the public-school lands were of no value, and that steps should be taken to have these worthless sections replaced while timberlands were still unoccupied.

Prof. McCrea thinks that—

> from a financial standpoint the schools of Arizona were probably never in so good a condition as during their administration by Supt. Horton. There was a substantial growth of the population, and the development of the natural resources went forward at a rapid rate. The burdens of taxation had not yet become so apparent, and the people were willing to spend money liberally on the education of their children.

He comments further on the work of Supt. Horton:

> Supt. Horton made an effort to inspect the schools of Arizona in order to learn their true condition. This kind of work had not been done since Gov. Safford left the Territory. On account of the size of the country, the scattered settlements, and the difficulties and cost of travel, many of the schools could not be reached. Then the other duties of the superintendent were heavy and demanded much time and attention. But he thought the inspection of the schools could be made of great value, and asked the assembly to amend the school law so that a deputy superintendent might be employed, to have charge of the office in the absence of the superintendent, and that double the annual allowance of $500 should be made that officer in order to meet his traveling expenses when visiting schools. As the schools were so scattered, the superintendent could not hope to give them a very close supervision. Besides, his efforts could be more profitably directed to the general management of the schools. As the probate judges, who were by law ex officio county superintendents of schools, had no time to devote to such work and no training which fitted them to do it well, the superintendent recommended that the office of county superintendent should be made a separate office, and that the duty of visiting and inspecting all the schools of the county should be made compulsory. He believed that in no department of the public service was supervision more needed than in the schools, and that those of Arizona had reached a point where this matter must be met and solved. Unfortunately the people's representatives were not ready to solve the problem of school supervision thus early

> emphasized by Supt. Horton. Nor has much been done since for its solution. One town—Phoenix—now employs a superintendent of schools. In two others—Prescott and Tucson—the principals must devote a large share of their time to teaching, and in other large towns practically no time is allowed the principals for supervision. In the counties having the largest amount of taxable property the separate office of county superintendent has been established, and is now on trial. The office of superintendent of public instruction has lost rather than gained in importance, and a small salary and no appropriation for office or traveling expenses prevent it being sought by able men engaged in school work. The problem of supervision is one of the most pressing matters in education in Arizona to-day.
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> While Supt. Sherman had the honor of selecting the landed endowment for the university, it was owing to Supt. Horton's persistence that a part of it was finally secured. To him is also due the law of the assembly to prevent any further destruction of the timber, which alone made the land valuable. He, too, saw the advantage likely to result to the Territory from further selections of unoccupied timber land in lieu of the school sections (16 and 36) when they should fall on worthless lands, and urged that steps be taken to get such authority from Congress.

He concluded his estimate of Horton's work in the following language:

> Supt. Horton was not a candidate for reelection at the close of his term, and with his retirement from the office the schools of Arizona passed from under the control of the men whose names can be linked with those of Gov. Safford, not only as having matured his policy, but as successful superintendents of public instruction, though not in equal degrees. In addition, both Sherman and Horton, by their ability as principals of the schools of Prescott and Tucson, so commended public schools to their towns and sections that the success of the system was assured. Without such help Gov. Safford, wth all his energy and enthusiasm, would have found it difficult to reach the larger success that marked school matters during his second term as governor.[1]

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[1] In March, 1885, Prof. Horton was appointed by Gov. Tritle as clerk of the county court and clerk of the county of Pima to serve two years. After this office expired he removed to San Carlos, Ariz., and became Indian post trader, where he was killed not long after by an Indian policeman.

Chapter V.

ORGANIZING THE SCHOOL SYSTEM, 1885–1887.

The next period in the history of the Arizona public schools opens with a readjustment of one of the questions of patronage. The law of 1871 had made the governor Territorial superintendent of public instruction ex officio. That remained the law until the act of February 14, 1879. This law authorized the governor to appoint a substitute to perform the duties which the law of 1871 had assigned to him, and then provided that in 1880 and thereafter the superintendent should be chosen by the people at the regular election every second year. Supt. Sherman, who was appointed by Gov. Frémont in 1879, was chosen by popular vote at the regular election in 1880; and so was Supt. Horton, in 1882, without discussion or challenge. In 1884 Robert Lindley Long was elected. But with the opening of the legislative session of 1885 Gov. Tritle, relying on section 1857 of the Revised Statutes of the United States, in a communication to the council on February 13, 1885, declared that the appointment of the Territorial superintendent of public instruction was a duty which clearly fell within the limits of his prerogatives, but since Mr. Long had already been chosen by the people and had received the certificate of election, he was now formally appointed by Gov. Tritle to fill the office, and his confirmation asked of the council. There was no formal objection to this claim and Mr. Long was confirmed by unanimous vote. During the remainder of the Territorial period the office remained subject to appointment by the governor, to whom, under the law, the right clearly pertained.[1]

Of the school situation at this time McCrea says:

> By 1885 the school system of Arizona was ready to begin developments along broader lines. * * * It would seem that the time had come not only to mold the school law into more permanent form, but also to add higher institutions of learning, if a self-sufficing Commonwealth was to be built up in the heart of the American desert. Nor was the Territory lacking in financial ability to take a great forward step in education. The assessed valuation of its property in 1884 was over $30,000,000. Its real value was probably more than double that sum. But the financial condition of the Territory was not so satisfactory. * * * The auditor recommended a considerable increase in taxation, but the governor thought this might be avoided by more efficient methods of taxation and by proper economy. * * * Mining, farming, and stock raising were all making great progress in the Territory, which enjoyed

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[1] Legislative Jour., Arizona, 1885, pp. 423–24.

[illegible] It was under such [illegible] in 1885. In its work for education [illegible] of 1871 [illegible] a definite form.[1]

[illegible] urged that [illegible] superintendent be made distinct from that of [illegible] and [illegible] in the [illegible] of school taxes. He [illegible] sec-tions [illegible] was asked. McCrea has [illegible] for the schools. [illegible] made a larger appropria-tion for the work of the superintendent than had ever been made before. [illegible]

One marked [illegible] of Arizona from 1871 to the time now [illegible] was the [illegible] of the school law. Beginning with the law of 1871 there had been no sudden or violent change in the [illegible] of the law. The first draft contained [illegible] the more essential elements of a school system. These came re-[illegible] in [illegible], [illegible], [illegible], 1883, and again in 1885. During all that period there was little departure from the normal. The law was extended, developed, and revised to conform more nearly to new conditions. There was no violent change in the system. It can be accurately said that while more inclusive the law of 1885, and that of 1887, which appears as its final form, was only the act of 1871 writ large. The law of 1885 goes into great detail and defines with minute exactness the duties of the various branches of the school system; little was left to the imagination or to chance.

The main alterations and additions which differentiate the law of 1885 from earlier ones, together with the further perfected forms as seen in the law of 1887, are summarized in the section which follows.

I. THE SCHOOL LAWS OF 1885 AND 1887.

Like the school law of 1883, that passed on March 12, 1885, has the merit of being a serious detailed codification and revisal of the body of the school law. It was rearranged, improved, pruned, and added to.

The power and duties of the Territorial board of education are defined; the old Territorial certificates were revoked; and under the new law "Territorial educational diplomas" were given only to those who had held a first-grade Territorial or county certificate for a year and had taught for at least 5 years, while the "life diploma" now required 10 years of teaching instead of 5.

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[1] McCrea, loc. cit., p. 119.

An entirely new feature, the Territorial board of examiners, consisting of the superintendent of public instruction and two competent persons appointed by him, was created and its duties defined. Its main duty was to prepare questions for the use of county boards of examiners, to grant recommendations for life and educational diplomas, grant Territorial diplomas, etc., and fix rules governing the same. For a first-grade Territorial certificate good for four years the applicant was required to pass on algebra, physiology, natural philosophy, geography, history, and Constitution of the United States, orthography, defining, penmanship, reading, method of teaching, grammar, arithmetic, and the school laws of Arizona. Applicants for the second-grade certificate, good for three years, must pass on all the above except the first three—algebra, physiology, and natural philosophy. Normal and life diplomas from other States were accepted as evidences of fitness without examination. Only the Territorial certificate of the first grade gave authority to teach in the grammar schools.

The Territorial superintendent was now given authority "to investigate all accounts of school moneys kept by any Territorial, county, or district officer," and was given also a closer and more direct control over school libraries. The law of 1887 released him from the obligation to visit the counties. It will be noticed, however, that the new control of the money power of the schools greatly increased the superintendent's prestige and power.

The probate judges were continued as ex officio county superintendents, and their salaries as such fixed by law. These ranged from $600 in Yavapai down to $300 in Gila, Mohave, and Yuma. The act of 1887 made it $300 in each county. Their duties were defined minutely and a series of penalties introduced, which ranged from $25 for failing to visit any school in the county to $100 for failure to make reports.[1] The duties were detailed and exacting. They included greatly extended power over the county school funds and were evidently more than any single man could manage. For these reasons the county superintendent was permitted to appoint a deputy, but no salary out of the school funds was allowed such deputy.

Teachers' institutes covering a period of from three to five days were permitted by the law of 1885 and required by that of 1887 in counties having 10 or more school districts, and, as under the earlier law, teachers then conducting schools were granted the right to attend without loss of salary. The total expense of such county institutes was not to exced $25.

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[1] The act of 1887 released the county superintendent from the duty of visiting, and the fine for failure to report was reduced one-half.

The superintendent of public instruction was to appoint two persons who, with the county superintendent, were to constitute the board of county examiners. They met quarterly, examined teachers from questions furnished by the Territorial board, enforced the uniform textbooks and the course of study in the schools.

Each school district was given corporate powers, and "every county, city, or incorporated town, unless subdivided by proper authority, forms a school district." As in the old law, each new district must have at least 10 school census children who must be at least 2 miles from any schoolhouse. The school district trustees were to be elected one each year, and their duties were closely and minutely defined. In Apache and Graham women were not allowed to vote at these elections (repealed in 1887). All work was based on the primary and grammar grades. [illegible] months was counted as a school year, and it was now directed that the schools be taught in English. Instruction was required in reading, writing, orthography, arithmetic, geography, grammar, history of the United States, elements of physiology and of bookkeeping (hygiene was added in 1887), industrial drawing, "and such other studies as the Territorial board of education may prescribe, but no such other studies can be pursued to the neglect or exclusion of the studies enumerated." Supplies but not textbooks were furnished free. The section in regard to books and tracts of a sectarian character was retained.

The Territorial tax rate was reduced to 3 cents per $100 of taxable property and the county rate was made not more than 75 cents on the hundred (law of 1887 went back to the old limitations, between 50 and 80 cents) nor less than a rate necessary to raise funds sufficient to meet the requirements of the law. When the Territorial and county funds were not sufficient to provide buildings and run the schools at least five months, the remainder must be raised by local tax, and if any additional sum was wanted it might, as in the old law, be raised by a two-thirds vote of the taxpayers.

The school money, both Territorial and county, was apportioned by allowing for each teacher, calculating one teacher to 80 children or fraction thereof (changed in 1887 to one teacher for 15 to 50 pupils), the sum of $500; but in districts where there were between 10 and 15 children only the district received $400; the law of 1887 gave $250 to districts with from 5 to 10 children. If any funds remained, they were apportioned to districts with not less than 30 children, and no school was entitled to apportionment that had not maintained a school at least five months during the preceding year. This act,[1] as revised in 1887 and with a few later amendments, remained the school law of Arizona until 1907, when it was again revised.[2]

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[1] Sess. Laws of Arizona, 1885, pp. 138–170; Rev. Stat. of 1887 and School Laws of 1887 (separate). Act of 1887 passed on March 10.

[2] Law approved Mar. 15, 1901.

Of the law of 1885 and of the particular reasons for some of its main provisions McCrea says:[1]

> During the time the assembly was in session the school law of 1883 was subjected to a revision from which it emerged in about the shape it has ever since borne. This work was performed by those best qualified to do it well—i. e., by the outgoing [Horton] and incoming [Long] superintendents of public instruction, and the assembly showed its wisdom by framing the law much as suggested by those officers. * * * That the standard of scholarship among teachers might be raised and superior teachers induced to come to the Territory, a Territorial board of examiners was created to supervise the work of the several boards of county examiners and to issue certificates good throughout the Territory upon certain credentials and upon examination papers forwarded to them from the various counties. The credentials upon which certificates could be issued without examination were definitely fixed in the law, also the branches upon which teachers must be examined for certificates. Such things had been too largely left to the discretion of boards of examiners in the past.
>
> This assembly made an effort to arrange a more satisfactory plan of school taxation. As three new institutions had been created which must have buildings and maintenance from Territorial taxation, it was thought best to reduce the Territorial school tax to a nominal figure. With the handsome balances with which every county had closed each of the last two school years the legislature had reason for believing that the new plan for levying the county school tax would relieve the Territory of further responsibility in supporting common schools. Then district taxes might sooner be resorted to to lengthen the term than heretofore, though no such use had been made of the tax in any county during the last two years.
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> Every school law since that of 1871 had contained provisions against the introduction of tracts or papers of a sectarian character into the public school, also against the teaching of any sectarian doctrine in them. For some reason this was not believed to be drastic enough, and a section was added to the law which provided for revoking teachers' certificates for using in their schools sectarian or denominational books, for teaching in them any sectarian doctrine, or for conducting any religious exercise therein. The lawmakers evidently aimed to relegate all religious teaching to the home and the church. The prohibiting of "religious exercises" in schools has met with strong condemnation from many Protestant church members, but with the variety of religious creeds represented in the Territory it is doubtful whether a better policy could have been found.
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> For the first time in the Arizona school law there was a recognition of the work of the schools in training the youth for citizenship, and the provision was of such a broad and general character that the criticism on the religious prohibition loses much of its force.

II. THE ADMINISTRATION OF SUPERINTENDENT LONG, 1885-1887.

It is now possible to turn from the law itself to a consideration of its execution and the development of the schools during the period.

The third Territorial superintendent of public instruction of Arizona was Robert Lindley Long, a Pennsylvanian, who had been in Arizona since 1877. He was principal of the public schools of

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[1] See McCrea, in Long's Report, 1908, pp. 121-122.

[illegible]

[illegible] Territorial board of [illegible]

[illegible] the board for the direction [illegible] of study and of recreation. [illegible] similar matters. The use of [illegible] but there were as yet [illegible] certain cases, "books may be furnished [illegible] by the trustees, at the expense of the [illegible] teacher shall have certified in writing that the [illegible] to purchase such books." The means of [illegible] for teachers and these rules and regulations for pupils were left mainly in the hands of the teachers themselves. The local trustees had general control, but it is well known that they do little. The Territorial superintendent could not possibly make the rounds of all the schools, and was released from the requirement to do so in 1887; the county superintendent was instructed "to enforce" the laws and regulations, and made visits to the school from time to time, but as he was not required by any law to visit the schools under his jurisdiction after 1887, and as his official duties at the county seat gave him no leisure for such visits, at best his supervision would be at long range and so of little effect. But, nevertheless, this was a beginning of State supervision and represents the preliminary steps in Territorial control. In the same way the board drew up and promulgated rules for the administration of the district-school libraries, which were beginning, under the encouragement of the law, to spring up in the more prosperous and progressive communities. The board did not materially change the course of study; it added to the course such branches as are usually taught in high schools, and authorized the districts with superior facilities to organize high-school classes when there were funds available and pupils to make use of the opportunities offered. The textbooks adopted in 1881, with a single exception, were retained, and texts for teaching the effects of alcohol and narcotics were added. The board of Territorial examiners, created by the law of 1885, was now organized for the first time. It consisted of the superintendent and two other persons appointed by him. Rules and regulations for the use and direction of the county examiners were promulgated, and an examination for the general use of these officers was provided. These examinations were to be held in the counties and the papers were returned to the Territorial board, which issued the diplomas. The old Territorial diplomas were revoked, and now three classes only of diplomas were issued: (1) To those holding diplomas issued in States with educational requirements equal to those in Arizona; (2) to graduates of normal schools; (3) to those passing the Territorial examination.

The superintendent published in his report one of the series of examinations that were set for teachers. It was long and searching in character. It required an extensive acquaintance with primary and secondary work and that the applicant be well prepared for the classroom. The examination was made for the subjects covered in the law, including the school law itself. It made possible the organization and development of high-school work without further machinery whenever pupils were ready to avail themselves of such opportunities and wherever the schools were financially capable of providing them. The primary and grammar courses covered the first seven grades; to this two years of high-school work was to be added.

There is given in this report statistics and an account of the organization of the first Territorial normal school at Tempe, which will be considered in another connection. In his own summary and discussion of the statistics, Mr. Long points out that there were in the

Territory 10,219 children between 6 and 18 years, which was then the school age, and 4,502 between 8 and 14 years, the compulsory age. Of these, 4,974 attended school in 1884–85 and 6,072 in 1885–86. In 1885 there were in addition 1,024 children in private schools. It may be assumed that most of these were Catholic Church schools, as the Protestants generally either accepted the work of the public schools as sufficient or were too weak to organize schools for themselves. Based on the figures for 1884–85, it was thought that perhaps as many as 7,100 children were in school during 1885–86. The average attendance in the public schools was not so satisfactory: in 1884–85 it was 3,226, or 64.9 per cent of the enrollment; and in 1885–86, 3,507, or 57.7 per cent of enrollment.

Twenty-one new districts had been organized, and while some of the new buildings were erected to replace old ones, the majority were in districts where none had existed before. New buildings and their appurtenances cost about $48,000. The funds to meet these expenses were raised by special taxes and by bond issues.[1] Thirteen primary schools had been evolved into grammar-grade schools, and while the whole number of schools in 1884 was 121, in 1886 it had grown to 150. Through purchase and donations 1,930 books had been secured for the public-school libraries in 1885–86, as against 1,171 volumes in 1884–85. Of the teachers, 86 had first-grade certificates, of whom 25 were employed in the grammar and high school grades, leaving 61 for the primary and grammar grades, showing that about one-half the schools were enjoying the services of first-grade teachers. At the end of his term the superintendent was able to say:

> It may be safely asserted the public schools of Arizona are in charge of as competent a body of teachers as can be found anywhere.

The law of 1885 reduced the Territorial tax to 3 cents on the hundred,[2] and as a result, as Supt. Long says in his report:

> Under the present law the cost of maintaining the schools devolves on the counties and is not shared by the Territory at large. * * * The revenue raised by the counties for the support of the schools during the past year, while it nearly equaled the sum obtained in 1884–85 from this source, was inadequate to a maintenance of the schools for the proper length of time. Boards of supervisors in some instances disregarded the estimates upon which the minimum rate of tax is based, as furnished by the superintendents, and in other cases no estimates were furnished, or if made at all, were based on erroneous calculations. As supervisors generally make as small a levy as possible under the law, no result could follow but a scarcity of funds.

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[1] In 1885 $12,000 in bonds was issued for school purposes by Florence, in Pinal County. (Sess. Acts, 1885, ch. 3.) Graham County also issued $8,000 of bonds (chs. 111 and 112) for the town of Clifton.

[2] This was possibly brought about indirectly by the act of 1885, which reduced the upper county limit from 80 cents to 75 cents, but the law of 1887 went back to 80 cents. The reduction of the upper limit would undoubtedly suggest the reduction of the rate actually levied.

This falling off in school income in 1885–86 as compared with the previous year was as follows, as given by Long: The amount for 1884–85 was $144,350.29 and in 1885–86 it was $114,863.43. The Territorial tax fell from $22,789.60 to $10,662.06; the miscellaneous receipts from $25,292.53 to $18,760.12; the county tax was off about $2,000[1] and the gift of $8,500 for a normal school in 1884–85 was omitted the next year. The total deficit of 1885–86, as compared with 1884–85, was no less than $29,496.86. But by using the balances that had come over from the full years, and by exercising more carefully the gift of economy, the superintendent was able to carry the schools through the latter year without a deficit, although the total number of schools was increased from 137 to 150 and the total enrollment rose from 4,974 to 6,076. Unfortunately, 22 days were lost from the school term, as compared with the year before, and it is probable that a part of this burden was placed on the shoulders of the teachers, for the salary of men dropped from $91 to $80.45, and of women from $84 to $76.18. The total expenditures in 1884–85 were $141,264.83, and in 1885–86, $144,868.99.[2]

The school system at this time was becoming highly centralized. The superintendent, the governor, and the Territorial treasurer composed the Territorial board of education; as the other members were ex officio, they would be disposed to leave the active administration of the board to the Territorial superintendent, who prepared its rules and regulations and its courses of study. The Territorial superintendent and two other members appointed by him composed the Territorial board of examiners, and the superintendent appointed also two of the three members of the county board of examiners. The county superintendents were required to make reports under heavy penalty. This centralizing tendency was negatived to a certain extent, however, by the inability of the superintendent to follow up his subordinates with a close supervision. True, certain funds were assigned him for traveling, and he visited the schools when possible; but the funds given were limited in amount ($500 per year), the territory to be covered was great, and the duties at the capital were becoming all the time more and more important and imperative.

Supt. Long visited each county during each year of his administration and concluded from his observations that the Territory had made progress during the two years in the following particulars: The enrollment and the average daily attendance had largely increased; more and better schoolhouses had been erected and supplied with better furniture and school apparatus; teachers were better qualified, and as a result pupils were better taught; funds were being more judiciously expended; back of all these, public opinion was growing to a more intelligent appreciation of the schools and of their wants.

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[1] Under the law of 1879 this tax was 15 cents, and the same under the law of 1883.

[2] These are the figures given by Long in his report for 1885–86. In the report for 1889–90 figures varying from the above for these same items are given and are followed in the statistical table at the end of this study. The student of school reports is constantly harassed by different sets of figures covering the same items, but conflicting with each other, probably neither being entirely correct.

The school situation as it was then developing must have given much pleasure to the friends of education and enlightenment. The Territorial system had started on an independent career with Sherman in 1879 and had gone its own way with little supervision until 1883. Then came Horton, who was really first to undertake the organization of the Territorial system. He made some progress; the law of 1883 was a step in the right direction; then, in 1885, the old superintendent (Horton) and the new (Long) put their heads together and evolved a still better law, which, under the pressure of actual working conditions, was somewhat modified in 1887. A beginning in high-school work had appeared about 1883. Provisions were made in 1885 for a university and the normal school at Tempe, and the latter began to furnish teachers. The outlines of a complete Territorial system were visible, and in 1885 a uniform course of study was adopted, but was unfortunately soon abandoned. The last year of Long's administration seems to mark the crest of the wave of progress; with the incoming of Strauss retrogression became more and more marked.

There were, however, unquestionably serious drawbacks in the school situation. In the first place, the schools were in politics, and any change in the control of national parties in Washington was felt in the public-school superintendency in Arizona. The result of this was bad. Every governor appointed his own friends to office, and as a result there was a rapid succession of officials, who, however earnest and devoted, were handicapped by inexperience. By the time they had learned their duties they were ready to give way to other untrained men.

Chapter VI.

REACTION AND PROGRESS, 1887–1899.

The period of 12 years between 1887 and 1899 may be characterized as one of retrogression and advance, reaction and progress. This changing condition is evidenced by the number of Territorial superintendents. Between 1887 and 1899 there were five, so that they served on an average only a little over two years each. They were: Charles M. Strauss, chosen by the people at the regular election in 1886, and appointed by Gov. Zulick in January, 1887. He served for two years, and was again appointed to the office in 1889, but a Republican successor to Gov. Zulick was then expected, the council refused to confirm the nomination, and on April 8, 1889, George W. Cheyney, a Pennsylvanian by birth, a mining engineer by profession, and at that time a member of the Territorial council from Cochise County, was lifted into the office by Gov. Wolfley, who had succeeded Gov. Zulick. Strauss, however, was not willing to get out of office and held on until about June, 1890; neither the old superintendent nor the new gave any particular attention to the office. Cheyney drew the salary, but Strauss was later reimbursed by the legislature.[1] Cheyney continued to serve for the term 1891–1893, but the legislature was then in opposition to the governor, and cut Cheyney's salary from $2,000 to $750 per year. Frethias J. Netherton was confirmed as his successor on April 13, 1893. He was a native of California, an athlete, a newspaper man, and a schoolmaster. The office of Territorial superintendent was a movable one. Cheyney had conducted its affairs from Tombstone; Netherton now removed it to Mesa City, where he had a business. He was appointed by Gov. Hughes, and went out of office with the governor. His successor was Thomas E. Dalton, who said, in the report for 1895–1897, that he came into office about May 15, 1896. He was a native of St. Lawrence County, N. Y., and a college man. He was a teacher in the Phoenix schools, and when not engaged in the active work of teaching conducted a real estate business there. He had his office as Territorial superintendent in Phoenix and was at the head of the schools about a year. His successor was A. P. Shewman, a lawyer and editor, with an office at Mesa. He served till February 27, 1899, when he in turn gave place to Robert L. Long, who had been superintendent in 1885–1887, and had first started the schools on organized lines.

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[1] Ex relatione Robert L. Long, ex-superintendent.

Of these five superintendents, apparently only two (Netherton and Dalton) had had any experience in educational matters. The others were business men, followers of particular governors, political favorites. They probably did in a school way what they could, but they had no permanent office, no money for traveling, and little salary.[1] It is rather remarkable that the schools in general showed for most of the time, as statistics will prove, a fairly uniform growth.

After this survey of the personal side of the Territorial superintendents during this period, it seems well to summarize the fortunes of the schools somewhat chronologically. In his message to the assembly on January 11, 1887, Gov. Zulick, after reviewing briefly the former years, utters a word of warning:

> It is admitted that the permanency of our institutions depends upon the intelligence of the people. Free public schools are the means of diffusing knowledge among the rising generation and preparing the youth of the land to exercise with intelligence the duties of American citizenship when clothed with its cares and responsibilities. Since intelligence elevates communities and restricts crime, and ignorance degrades citizenship and fosters vice, it is our duty, as far as possible, to place within the reach of every child the means for obtaining a good, solid business education. Universities and normal schools are all right and proper, but should not be maintained to the detriment or injury of our public schools, upon the efficiency of which depends the education of the masses.

After pointing out what had been done officially toward the beginning of a normal school and of a university, he made a wise suggestion, which later became and even yet remains to a certain extent the principle of action in Arizona. He said in his conclusion:

> I respectfully suggest that, as there are no high schools in the Territory where a scientific course and preparatory course of instruction can be taken to fit our youths to enter college, the normal school and university could be well utilized for this purpose.[2]

But the recommendations of Gov. Zulick received scant attention in 1887, for a reaction was due. The first manifestation of this reaction came within a month of the meeting of the legislature, when a fight on the public-school system began. On February 7, 1887, A. G. Oliver, member of the lower house from Yavapai, gave notice that he would introduce a bill to abolish the Territorial superintendency, and the passage of this bill was recommended by the committee to which it was referred and of which Oliver was chairman.[3]

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[1] Salary, 1887–1891, $2,000 per year; 1891–1893, $750 per year; 1893–1895, $1,200; 1895–1897, no record seen that any salary was provided; 1897–1899, $1,200; 1899, $1,200. In 1889 the $500 for printing was restored; it appeared again in 1891 and 1893, but not in 1895, 1897, or 1899.

[2] Jour. Legislative Assembly, 1887, pp. 240–242.

[3] Ibid., pp. 361, 375, 385.

The reasons for this action are not clear from the journals, but they are said to have been of a political character.[1]

In the fight which followed the superintendency won out; the office was not abolished, but it was shorn of its powers. The superintendent was no longer required to visit the counties and supervise the schools; his allowance for traveling and office expenses and for printing blanks was cut off, and any chance for a general supervision of the schools of the Territory was cut off.

McCrea, in reviewing the situation, remarks that—

> All idea of making the superintendent of any signal service to the schools was abandoned, and from this time on no superintendent of public instruction in Arizona has been chosen from the ranks of those actually engaged in teaching, though three out of six have had experience as teachers.[2]

The new board of education appointed in 1887, none of whom were teachers, also began to get in its work; it amended (1887) the rules and regulations for the government of the schools of the Territory, and its amendments were not always for the best. Some of the old teaching certificates revoked by the former administration were now regranted, and a rule was adopted that practically abandoned corporal punishment. This caused great dissatisfaction among the teachers and was modified in 1890, so that the penalties of the law applied only to those who inflicted excessive or cruel punishment. Still more unsatisfactory was the dropping of the course of study from the requirements. The schools went back to the old system where each teacher worked out a course for himself. It is true that there was still an adopted series of textbooks, but with no fixed course of study it was impossible to make the classes uniform, and no other course was prepared until Long again became superintendent in 1899–1900.

This reaction against the schools in 1887 was doubtless due to the irritation of the people arising in part from causes other than educational. The governor points out in his message of 1887 that the assembly for some years had been wasteful and had been spending more money than had been allowed by Congress. A debt of $336,817 had been contracted in eight years for roads, bridges, and legislative expenses. Much of this money had been wasted or actually stolen in building the penitentiary and the insane asylum. Says McCrea:

> The people were becoming restive under the great burdens of taxation and the wasteful and corrupt management of affairs. In seeking relief they had already begun to retrench on money spent for schools. This is hardly to be wondered at, as salaries and expenses of school officials had wonderfully increased, while the improvement of the schools was not so apparent.[3]

On the legislative side the situation in 1889 was a period of calm when compared with 1887. Gov. Zulick confined his attention to efforts toward securing from Congress the privilege of selling the school lands, in which he failed, and actual legislation was practically negligible. A compulsory school law was framed, which was substantially a reenactment of the law of 1875, but in 1895-96 it was declared to be null and void by the attorney general, and the Territory was without compulsory legislation until 1899, when a new law, differing but little from those of 1885 and 1889, was enacted.

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[1] Ex relatione Robert L. Long, ex-superintendent.

[2] McCrea, in Long's report, p. 139. This was written in 1902.

[3] McCrea, loc. cit., p. 138.

Supt. Cheyney discussed in his report for 1889-90 the difficulties and tendencies of the period. A question then of much importance was that of providing funds for new schoolhouses. The older custom, begun in 1877 and brought to mature stature in the eighties, was by issuing bonds under special acts. A general act passed in 1891 (ch. 16) made this no longer permissible. Under the new act the district trustees might still issue bonds not to exceed 4 per cent of the assessed value of their property and there must be provisions for a local tax on the property of the district for repayment. In some places the burden of this additional tax was regarded as excessive and resulted in the rental or erection of unsuitable houses and of inadequate accommodations. As a way out of the difficulty Supt. Strauss suggested that the Territory create a Territorial loan and building fund based on the idea of the building and loan associations.

In 1889 four new schoolhouses were erected; in 1890 the number was 15.

At this time the finances of the schools were generally good. The Territorial administrative expenses were paid out of the 3-cent Territorial tax; in the counties the minimum county tax was levied and in all except one a surplus was reported. But the administration of the county school funds was complicated and unsatisfactory, because they were collected and expended by 187 local boards of trustees, 10 county treasurers, 10 county superintendents, and the Territorial superintendent, and all on different plans of accounting. The Territorial superintendent plaintively adds: "The result is inevitable. Confusion reigns, and tabulation of records at given dates as the law contemplates and requires is simply impossible." He recommends, therefore, that a uniform system of record of school moneys be adopted and used and that the Territorial superintendent be required to visit each county at least once a year and audit the records of school moneys in each. He urged that the Territorial superintendent's office be made elective and thought that while the schools had as much money as necessary, the school attendance, being 36.5 per cent only, was less than it should be. He intimates that a stronger compulsory law might be necessary, but points out that many children were so located that attendance was impossible; that in the towns private and parochial schools drew off a number of pupils, and that the summer heat, early and intense, was one of the main causes of the comparatively short term—about six and one-half months. The salary paid teachers, while falling slightly from year to year, was "equal to if not larger" than that paid elsewhere, while positions in the Territorial schools were "so eagerly sought as to render possible the selection of teachers of the highest grade." The teachers' institute, however—

> seems to work rather a hardship than a benefit, and is frequently ignored. * * * The conditions in this Territory of distance and inaccessibility are such as to render it well nigh impossible for any excepting those at the county seat to attend. For the same reason it is impossible, with the funds he is permitted to use, for the county superintendent to provide the lecturers whose instruction forms the chief value of an institute. It is a question whether under the circumstances the improvement of the teacher is sufficient to compensate the school for the annual loss of a week's services, and I recommend that the law be modified in so much as the annual institute is made obligatory.

The superintendent points out that, while the new normal school was intended primarily to provide teachers for the Territorial schools, it was hardly less useful in furnishing "an opportunity for an education at home beyond that possible in the grammar school, and the course of study has been so arranged that the pupil upon completing the grammar school course shall be fitted for entrance to the normal school." Indeed, this was the first service to which the new institution was put. Before taking prospective teachers into the deeps of professional subjects, it was necessary to give them instruction in secondary subjects.

In his message to the assembly in 1891 Gov. Murphy has much to say on educational matters. He discussed the university, the normal school, and the school laws. He urged that the Territorial superintendent should be again required to visit the counties "and ascertain the true conditions of the schools therein". and urged that the law which prohibited teachers from serving on the county board of examiners was "an absurdity which should be corrected. It is in keeping with a provision that requires doctors to be examined by farmers or lawyers by merchants." He made an argument against the special privileges given to towns in the matter of textbooks and urged that the rate of taxation be fixed at 30 to 60 cents instead of 60 to 80, as was then the law. He urged also that the Territorial superintendency should be maintained and its duties extended; that the services of the superintendent be made more effective; and that the superintendent "should be a capable and experienced educator." Bills were introduced to carry the terms of these recommendations into effect, but along with them was another to reduce the salary of the superintendent of public instruction and to attach his office to the office of county school superintendent of the county wherein the capital of the Territory was situated[1] and another to abolish the Territorial board of examiners.[2] Fortunately these proposals did not become law.

The actual educational legislation of 1891 may be summarized as follows:

In matters of legislation the assembly was more active than in 1889. Besides a general law authorizing school districts under fixed conditions to issue bonds for building and to liquidate outstanding indebtedness, the law on textbooks was made more rigid and county examiners were forbidden under penalty to give special preparation to any candidates for teachers' examination; a law to establish kindergartens was framed, and also an act to promote the education of the deaf, dumb, and blind, which was to be made a part of the university.

Things must have been making satisfactory progress, for in 1893 Gov. Murphy addressed the assembly in the following high-sounding, if not boastful, language:

> The University of Arizona compares favorably with other institutions similar in character throughout the States of the Union. It is thoroughly equipped and is conducted by learned and experienced educators. * * * The normal school of the Territory at Tempe is a highly creditable and deserving educational institution and is popular with the people. * * * Our common school system needs no laudation; its thorough excellence is a reason for pride and congratulation and has great effects in commending the Territory to the approving attention of the older communities of the country.

He again recommends that the duties of the Territorial superintendent be "specifically defined" and that his compensation be made such as would enable him to "give exclusive attention to educational matters; otherwise it would be better to abolish the office."

The legislature at the session of 1893 seemed to take the report of the governor as sufficient and practically let the schools alone. Supplementary agencies created included a Territorial library, to be located in the capitol and governed by a board of curators, with the Territorial secretary as librarian. There was also passed a law looking to a reform school to be located in Coconino County (ch. 81). This law became later the basal act for the northern Territorial normal school at Flagstaff.

There was during the years of Netherton's administration, 1892–93 and 1893–94, nothing unusual or extraordinary to report. There was a gradual extension of educational activity into the field of libraries, normal schools, and kindergartens. An unfavorable symptom was seen in the increase of school indebtedness, and there was complaint that the high schools, grammar, and primary school interests were not represented on the Territorial board of education. It was again urged that the powers of the Territorial superintendent be increased so that he might be able to exercise "a more direct supervision over every branch of the public school work." It was recommended that he prepare and prescribe a uniform system of accounts of school moneys and enforce their use; that he visit each county and that his traveling expenses be paid. There was here an effort both to come back to an abandoned custom and at the same time to escape from survivals of the earlier age. Says the Territorial superintendent:

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[1] See H. J., 1891, pp. 190, 436.

[2] Apparently this proposal was not formally introduced, but notice to that effect was given. See C. J., 1891, p. 109.

> At present the probate judge of each county is ex officio county superintendent of schools. The office is emphatically a political one and is usually filled by men who, though able, honorable, and conscientious, have no special ability in the line of superintending educational affairs. * * * The qualifications for a candidate for the office of county superintendent should be clearly defined and include the clause that he or she must have taught in a public school in this Territory at least two years on a first-grade certificate, and must hold a first-grade certificate or its equivalent at the time of receiving the nomination.

The superintendent suggested also that the requirements proposed for teachers should apply to county examiners, into whose ranks teachers had been admitted by act of 1893. He acknowledged the need of a course of study, but none had been compiled. This was made still more essential by the adoption of a new series of textbooks in 1893. The sentiment for free textbooks was growing. The law relating to school libraries was not flexible enough, for while the authorities might devote 10 per cent of their school income to the library, this was not permitted if there were less than 100 pupils in the district. The districts in which this prohibition of the law applied was where the benefits of a public library were most needed. There were then only 2,891 volumes in school libraries in the Territory.

There was as yet no special law for the organization of high schools, and the superintendent points out that there was in general more or less opposition to their organization in new counties. The necessity for them, however, was becoming more keenly felt. In 1892–93 the number of high-school pupils reported was 188; in 1893–94 the number had increased to 258. The superintendent suggested that a law be passed meeting certain conditions. These conditions were substantially met in the law of 1895 (ch. 32). This law is considered in detail under the subject of high schools.

In 1892 the Arizona Teachers' Association was organized (Dec. 23, 1892), and held its sessions, along with the teachers' institute, at Phoenix. The first officers were Prof. E. L. Storment, Tempe, president; Prof. F. A. Gully, of the university, secretary; and Miss Mamie

Garlic, Tempe, treasurer. The second session was held in Tucson. Its declared objects were improvement of the school system, professional fellowship, and protection. The interest manifested seemed to warrant recognition by the legislature and authorization to outline a course of reading.

The superintendent said that the compulsory law was a dead letter. This failure was apparently because its enforcement was devolved upon too many persons, and no compensation was provided therefor. It was pointed out also that "the formation of so many small school districts is expensive and detrimental in more ways than one." The consolidation of small districts with a controlling board as the trustees were then chosen was recommended as an improvement. Consolidation promised to be less expensive, and it was thought better supervision would follow.

In his message to the assembly in 1895 Gov. Hughes adopted in the main the suggestions of the Territorial superintendent and recommended them in his message. These included the enlargement of the duties of the Territorial superintendent, requiring him to visit each county at least once a year and to audit the accounts of the county superintendent and county treasurer. The representation of all classes of school work on the Territorial board of education and the separation of the office of probate judge and county superintendent were urged.

The governor said further:

> The superintendent should be a teacher of experience and hold a valid first-grade certificate, or its equivalent, at the time of his nomination for the office; no increase of salary would be necessary. A restrictive clause, limiting the renewal of certificates would do much toward maintaining a high standard in the teaching force. The Arizona Teachers' Association should be encouraged by legislative enactment. Salaries should be graded according to the experience or efficiency of teachers. * * * A saving of about 40 per cent of the cost of school books could be made by the enactment of a proper law providing for free textbooks. General dissatisfaction exists with the custom of "farming out" teachers' positions. This evil should be prohibited by law.

It should be remarked that while there was discussion and demand that high educational qualifications should attach to the county superintendent, there was neither suggestion nor demand that there should be such for the Territorial superintendent. From the educational point of view any man was good enough. It was a political job, to be filled by the choice of the governor and without any required considerations for the good of the schools themselves. It would seem that it was sometimes the case that men were appointed with few qualifications, or with professions which could in no sense serve as a basis for educational supervision. When the student takes into consideration that the office of Territorial superintendent was always the football of politics and that appointments were made without reference to the welfare of schools; that the confirmation of individual appointees was rejected to gain political advantage; that the salary of others was cut until the place was no longer attractive; that the superintendents were constantly changing, some resigning, and some being turned out; it becomes a source of wonder that the schools could do as well as they did.

The legislation of 1895 in regard to education was not great in amount but was of some importance. One act was to encourage military instruction in the public schools (ch. 15), and a more important one was that to establish and maintain high schools in the Territory (ch. 32). Another act (ch. 53) provided that there should be levied for the next two years a special tax of two-fifths of a mill for a "normal-school fund." A special tax for the benefit of the university was also levied (ch. 75).

The successor of Supt. Netherton was T. E. Dalton, who first came into office about May 15, 1896. He was formally nominated and confirmed March 2, 1897. He reports "steady progress along all lines of educational effort." He summarizes the statistics for the years 1894–95 and 1895–96, and shows a gratifying increase. He emphasizes the need of a course of study, and points out that the Territorial board was required to—

> prescribe and enforce a course of studies in the public schools. As to the advisability of uniform courses of study, there can be no doubt. Why each one of 47 different districts in Maricopa County should have a different course of study there can be no good reason assigned.
>
> When we consider that there are 223 districts in the Territory, and each one pursuing a different course of study and exacting different requirements for the passing from one grade to the next higher, and this changed every time the district changes teachers, the reason becomes more apparent. There should be uniformity, so that if a child has completed the seventh year's work in the country schools and desires to enter the eighth grade in a city school, he will have a standing which will entitle him to enter that grade.

In the matter of the examination of teachers, Supt. Dalton recommended that the county board of examiners be abolished; that the county superintendent examine all applicants and that the papers be forwarded to the Territorial superintendent, who should examine and issue certificates. This would make requirements more uniform and discourage the issuance of low-grade certificates, of which there should be three grades—first, second, and the lowest or third. The Territorial superintendent's office, it was urged, should be strengthened, especially in the matter of supervision. The weakest points in the school system, as the superintendent then saw it, was the want of thoroughness, the overcrowded courses of study, and no definite plan of work. The office itself was handicapped for want of authority, lack of funds for traveling, and no proper power for the regulation and control of the keeping of school accounts. He urged that the superintendent, who was then appointed by the governor, be elected, and that his salary be increased (at this time it was only $1,200). He urged that the county superintendency be divided from the office of judge of probate.

The superintendent pointed out that in the anxiety to expend all the funds remaining in the treasury toward the end of the year the committee sometimes fell into extravagance, and this was particularly the case in the buying of charts and library books. The amount of money levied for school purposes was in general equal to the need, but now and then it was necessary to bring a writ against the board of county supervisors to force them to levy a school tax in accord with the report of the county school superintendent.

The tendency to create new school districts with not more than 10 pupils had produced various weak ones, which sometimes lapsed for lack of attendance.

There was little recommendation for distinctive legislation in this report.

Supt. Dalton was renominated for the new term beginning in March, 1897, and continued without opposition, but he seems to have served only about one year in all, when his work was taken over by A. P. Shewman, who published, on January 10, 1899, his report on the work of the superintendent's office for the last two years.

In his message to the assembly in 1897 Gov. Franklin discussed the public schools, quoted extensively from the superintendent's report, and pointed out that the annual cost per capita based on the number of children enrolled in 1895 was $17.58, and in 1896 it was $16.34. This was a little higher than Iowa ($15.58) and some less than New York ($18.97). When the cost per capita based on attendance was considered, the balance was against Arizona. In 1895 this was $29.94, and in 1896, $28.98, while in Iowa it was $24.50. It was becoming evident that the children of Arizona were not making the best use of their opportunities.

The governor pointed out again the advisability of separating the county superintendent's office from that of probate judge, and now, after many efforts, the school authorities were to see this desire consummated in the larger counties. Chapter 60 of the acts of 1897 provided that in counties of the first class (Maricopa, Yavapai, and Pima) the county superintendent of schools should be a separate officer and should receive $1,000 a year. In the other counties the situation remained as it was. Special taxes to aid the university and the normal school were laid, and an act was passed (ch. 69), the first of its kind, for leasing school and university lands.

The reports of Territorial Supt. Shewman for the years 1897 and 1898 contain nothing of particular significance. It should be said, however, that the statistics now presented from year to year are in much better form than earlier ones and carry the clearest evidence that progress was being made along most lines, although this progress was not uniform nor always where most needed. Thus the superintendent says that the Territorial board of education "realized the importance of a uniform course of study" but had been "more or less hampered in its work in that direction because of a lack of funds to pay for printing and distribution." He points out also that because of a lack of funds the school term was only six and one-half months, and recommends that the rate of taxation be raised so as to extend the term "to allow at least eight months' school in each district," but, instead, in 1899 the law was so amended (ch. 56) that for the purposes of fifth and sixth class counties the minimum limit of a five-months' term was reduced to three months.[1] This term was to be uniform and "as far as practicable with equal rights and privilege."

The high-school idea as embodied in the law of 1895 was not making progress. The superintendent discusses further the necessity of a compulsory attendance law. About 25 per cent of the children in the Territory were not even enrolled; of those enrolled the attendance, as the statistics given in the supplementary tables at the end will show, was low; and this failure was due, in the mind of the superintendent, to the lack of real compulsion.

When the period of 12 years from 1887 to 1899 is reviewed as a whole, it appears that there was growth, not with matured, well-directed, intelligent development, but the undirected growth that comes with increasing population and wealth, developing resources and ambition to provide the best possible opportunities for the incoming school population. In 1890 there were 55,734 white persons in the Territory; in 1900 this number had grown to 92,903, indicating an increase of nearly 70 per cent. A large proportion of these immigrants were from States where successful educational systems were already in operation, and they demanded similar privileges for their children in their new homes. They found a system in operation, but it was often the football of politics, often without expert direction, sometimes without direction at all. The schools existed because the children were there and money for schools was available. The system had been organized, and it now rumbled on without particular aid, but with some important developments and a more or less steady growth during the period. Thus in 1886–87 the school population was 10,303; in 1898–99 it was 19,823. The per cent of enrollment stood at 58.6 in 1888–89 and 80.2 in 1898–99: the average attendance based on school population for the same years was 34.1 and 47.4 per cent, respectively, and when based on enrollment, 58.9 and 59.1 per cent. When these statistics are studied for the whole period it will be seen that, while there were ups and downs in enrollment and attendance, the general progress was upward. In these matters the Territory during the period compares well with some of the States. The total receipts rose from $159,956 in 1885–86 to $295,884 in 1898–99; the total expenditures from $135,030 to $241,556 in the same years, and school property from $176,238 to $490,504. The schools had increased from 169 to 347; the teachers from 175 to 373. Salaries, however, had fallen from $81 to $67.77 per month, this being due in part at least to a general fall in prices; and the school term fell from 143 days to 127 days. Laws had been passed providing for the organization of school libraries and high schools, and some progress had been made on those lines, but in general the schools were going on in the same way in 1898–99 as they were in 1887–88. They needed systematic organization, correlation of parts, and authoritative supervision.

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[1] This was intended to meet special conditions in Apache County, where the refusal of the Santa Fe Pacific Railroad Co. to pay its taxes for 1898 had brought on a crisis in school affairs. After the trouble was settled the repeal of the law was recommended.

Chapter VII.

FURTHER GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT DURING THE TERRITORIAL PERIOD, 1899–1912.

During the remaining years of Territorial life there were four separate administrative periods, filled by three individuals. These superintendents and their terms of office were:

Robert L. Long, second term, who succeeded A. P. Shewman on February 27, 1899; reappointed March 19, 1901, and served till July 1, 1902, when he resigned.

Nelson G. Layton, July 1, 1902; reappointed January 30, 1903, and resigned January 1, 1906.

Robert L. Long, third term, January 1, 1906, to March 6, 1907; reappointed and served to March 17, 1909.

Kirke T. Moore, appointed March 17, 1909, and served till the admission of the Territory as a State. He was succeeded by Charles O. Case, March 12, 1912.

In the eyes of Gov. Murphy the schools were in excellent condition in 1899. In his message of that year he says:

> The university at Tucson and the normal school at Tempe are highly creditable institutions, and of incalculable benefit to the Territory. The managements show a very high order of ability, entirely satisfactory to their patrons. The advantages of an advanced educational system can hardly be overestimated. Our common schools can not be excelled anywhere in the Union.

Since such was thought to be the condition of the schools already, the governor naturally contented himself with what had been accomplished. He failed entirely to make any proposals for a wider usefulness for them.

The first act of this legislature looking to the schools was one enacting a new compulsory school law. This law differed little from the acts of 1875 and 1889. The length of attendance required was 12 weeks, against 16 in 1875; the exemptions were liberal and generous and could be met by almost any person who wanted to keep his children out of school, and while prosecution and fines were demanded against slackers, there were no special funds or special officers provided for its enforcement.

An act making for progress was one "to establish free public libraries and reading rooms." It applied only to cities of over 5,000 inhabitants, and provided for an annual tax (after the proposal had been accepted by a majority of the taxpayers of the city) of not more than one-half mill on the dollar (5 cents on the hundred) for the purchase of books and other publications and for erecting buildings. The moneys raised by tax or received by gift were to be a distinct fund and were to be controlled by a board of five trustees, who were to organize the library and set its machinery in motion. Under this law the libraries in the cities began a course of development, followed to some extent by those in the smaller country districts.

During the following years library progress was not satisfactory, however, for the library expenditure of money was confined to districts with more than 100 census children. The expenditures in 1906–7 were $787.43, and $963.02 in 1907–8. In all, 6,084 books were added during the two years, a part coming from donations and others being purchased out of the proceeds of entertainments given by teachers and pupils in the smaller schools. The superintendent then recommended that the library allowance be changed from the $50 per year then allowed to the larger districts to $100 per year, and that the smaller districts at that time receiving nothing for libraries be permitted to spend 5 per cent of their income for that purpose.

This development may be presented statistically as follows, so far as their progress is shown by the reports:

Growth and value of school libraries.

Years.	Amount expended.	Number of volumes.	Value of libraries.
1888–89	$169.00		
1889–90	184.00		
1894–95	667.93		
1895–96	732.22		
1896–97	246.61		
1897–98[1]	2,181.51		
1898–99	286.79		
1899–1900	477.59		
1900–1901	366.46	9,922	
1901–2	357.55	11,636	
1902–3	433.41	15,566	
1903–4	477.03	16,819	
1904–5		17,505	$14,358
1905–6		18,291	16,585
1906–7	787.43	19,999	17,724
1907–8	963.02	24,265	19,467
1910–11		32,018	
1911–12		30,493	24,959
1912–13		32,941	
1913–14		36,121	26,664
1914–15		43,126	
1915–16		42,808	

[1] Includes items expended for other purposes.

The Howell code of 1864 had provided for a Territorial library. The law governing that institution was amended from time to time. By chapter 62, session of 1915, the State library was to establish a law and legislative bureau. The State librarian was to be its director, form a collection of State newspapers, and make a biennial report.

I. SECONDARY ADMINISTRATION OF ROBERT L. LONG, 1889–1902.

On February 27, 1899, Mr. Robert Lindley Long, who had been superintendent in 1885–1887, was again nominated and confirmed as
l superintendent. To him as much as to any other man the

real organization of the system in 1885 was due. He had then been colaborer with William B. Horton in organizing the school system of the Territory. Before their day there had indeed been public schools in Arizona and even a Territorial superintendent, but there had been no real public school system. During the years between 1883 and 1887 it was the work of these two men to coordinate the independent and more or less disjointed units which had been growing up throughout the Territory and organize them into a single working whole. This was done by drafting a single body of school law applicable to the whole Territory, by preparing a course of study under which it was possible to grade the schools, and by laying the foundations for systematizing the work of teacher training by developing and leading the sentiment looking to the organization and endowment of the normal school at Tempe and the State university at Tucson; and now, after an interval of 12 years, Mr. Long came again into office to resume the interrupted thread of work.

In his report submitted in October, 1900, he mentions the organization of 13 new school districts during 1899 and 1900, and from this small number concludes that the smaller settlements then had school facilities "equal to those enjoyed by the more populous sections of the Territory." This was approximately true. The schools had increased from 347 in 1898 to 399 in 1900, and 10 schools had been advanced from the rank of primary to that of the grammar grades. There were now 122 grammar schools, and 21 new school buildings had been erected. There was, however, as yet only one high school organized under the law of 1895. This was at Phoenix, in which three courses, Latin, English, and business, had been provided. The first two were four-year courses, the third a three-year course.

The poll tax was falling off, possibly because of the failure of collectors in enforcing the law. The situation of the county school superintendents was not satisfactory, for those in the larger counties—Yavapai, Maricopa, and Pima—while receiving $1,000 each for their services, were required to visit their schools twice a year and at the end had paid out three-fourths of their salary as traveling expenses, and so really received less than those in the more thinly settled counties, where the salary was $300 per year only.

For the first time in the history of Arizona the superintendent prints reports from the individual counties, so that we have detailed reviews of the working of the system in the smaller units, which show in general a steady development. Supt. Long now emphasized the work of the county institutes. The law required them to be held for three days only in the strongest counties, while the union of two or more counties was permitted in other cases. Institutes were held in all counties but four, and these were sparsely settled. As it was, some of the teachers traveled 100 miles to attend and in one instance as much as 250 miles. Notwithstanding these difficulties the meetings were well attended, the programs were well filled, and much interest was manifested. It would appear that they were now becoming of real value to the system and had already contributed to the organization of the teaching forces.

As if taking up the school question where he had dropped it 12 years before, Supt. Long again turned his attention to the course of study which had been originally outlined and put into use during his earlier administration, in 1885–1887, but abandoned under Strauss. From that time to 1899 the schools had gone on their uneven and creaking way without rudder or compass. The new course of study as prepared by Supt. Long was adopted by the board of education on September 26, 1899, and was published and distributed among the teachers. At the same time a course of study for the new Union High School of Maricopa County, at Phoenix, was approved.

The examination questions for the use of the county boards of examiners were prepared quarterly, printed, and forwarded to the proper officers in time for the regular examinations in March, June, September, and December. New rules for the government of the county boards in giving these examinations were now adopted, and the questions themselves were large in number and searching in character. The fact that 277 teachers out of 399 were holding life, educational, or first-grade certificates indicates that the qualifications of teachers were rising. During the two years there were granted 21 educational diplomas, 5 life diplomas, and 18 certificates granted on diplomas, and 27 Territorial certificates.

The development in the growth of statistics during this period shows great progress over earlier years. These are now so complete that they begin to be of real service in a study of the Territory.

Mr. Long was again nominated by Gov. Murphy for the office of superintendent on March 19, 1901, and continued to serve in that capacity until July 1, 1902, when he resigned. Nelson G. Layton was nominated by Gov. Brodie and confirmed as his successor.

II. ADMINISTRATION OF NELSON G. LAYTON, 1902–1906.

Under the system of appointment in use in Arizona the general supervision of the schools was made subject to the whim of the governor every two years, and during the nineteenth century it was customary for each governor to change the school superintendent, in this way subjecting the schools to a succession of new men who, however well disposed and anxious to serve the schools, were hardly through the initiatory stages of office before called on to vacate for another, who began not where they left off but where they began. This constant change was always a cause of serious interruption to the progress of the schools. With the beginning of the present century, however, the tendency has been toward longer terms of service, with more satisfactory results. Mr. Layton published the report of Mr. Long for the two years ending June 30, 1902, as well as his own report for the period ending June 30, 1904, and Mr. Long returned the compliment by publishing Layton's report for June 30, 1906.

The early part of the period represented by these reports was one of increased and progressive educational legislation. The laws enacted included one raising the school age. They now abandoned the age limit 6 to 18, and went back to 6 to 21. This increase in age had its reflection in the statistics: In 1899-1900 the school population was 20,833; in 1900-1901, the act going into force on April 1, 1901, it was 23,435, or an increase of 12½ per cent. The reasons for this extension of the school age are self-evident, and it also appears that the people of the Territory made use of their increased opportunities, for the enrollment in 1899-1900 was 16,504, and in 1901-2, the first year in which the effects of the new law would be fairly felt, it was 19,203, or an absolute increase of 16.3 per cent on the enrollment of 1899-1900; but when these figures are measured in per cents of the school population it is found that in 1899-1900, 79.2 per cent was actually enrolled, while in 1901-2 this had fallen to 76 per cent; further, the average attendance based on enrollment fell from 61.6 per cent to 59.9 per cent, and average attendance based on school population fell from 48.8 per cent to 41.6 per cent. There was a compulsory law in force during these years, but it either did not or could not compel attendance. It was reported by the superintendent that in 1901 there were 5,967 school children who were not even enrolled during the year, and in 1902 this number had grown, in part because of the extended school age, to 7,104. The same loss of motion is shown in the statistics of cost. In 1901 the cost per capita of school population was $14.63; in 1902 it was $15.11. During the same period the cost per capita as based on enrollment was $19.15 and $19.41, showing that enrollment under the new law was keeping fairly close to that under the old; but when attention is directed to the cost per capita as based on average attendance, it was found to be for 1901 $30.66, while in 1902 it had run up to $34.82. In other words, the Territory was paying, because of poor attendance, more than $2 for every dollar's worth of service that it received. The compulsory law was a delusion and a snare; the Territory was paying out money for schools; the educational feast was spread; but like those in the days of Scripture the ones invited to this marriage feast of education were willing to give an attendance of less than 50 per cent.

In 1901 the assembly repealed the provision for the county board of examiners. This repeal went into effect April 1, 1901, and did away with county certificates on the expiration of the time for which they were originally granted. The examinations for certificates were still to be given at the county seat and were conducted by the county superintendents. The papers were then forwarded to the Territorial board of examiners for grading. The successful applicant received a Territorial certificate entitling him to teach in any public school in the Territory. Said the superintendent:

> By this method a more nearly uniform system of grading and certification is assured, which in my opinion has a tendency to elevate the standard of our public schools to a higher plane.

Rules and regulations making exact provisions for taking these examinations were provided for, but the questions themselves do not appear to be as difficult as those set in the former administration. Graduates of the Territorial normal schools were, on request, granted Territorial certificates without examination.

In his introduction to this period, the superintendent said:

> It is with pride that I am able to report the improvement in our system of schools, the keen interest manifested by our people in the education of our future citizens, and the earnest effort on the part of the teachers as a whole in their endeavor to raise our schools to a higher plane.

In 1901 the rate of taxation in the counties for schools was raised from 30 cents to 50 cents on the hundred. By this act the county income was considerably increased, and that year the income from the Territorial school fund was practically doubled, being $11,458 in 1901 and $22,951 in 1902; but, on the other hand, the poll tax fell from $46,554 to $23,943. The superintendent urged the necessity "of a library of carefully selected books in each school in the Territory."

An act of 1903 revised, defined, and extended somewhat the duties of the Territorial superintendent.[1] He was to superintend the schools, to apportion school funds, and audit the expenditure of the same, whether Territorial, county, or district. He was to prescribe forms and regulations and send them out to teachers and others, publish a biennial report, and print the school laws.

Another act of 1903[2] permitted the trustees in districts with a population of 1,000 or over, at their discretion, to employ teachers of music and drawing. In 1905 this act was extended to all school districts.[3]

During this period occurred the World's Fair at St. Louis, in which the schools of the Territory were represented. Specimens of the work done throughout the Territory were collected; these specimens represented the actual work done by the pupils under the prescribed Territorial course of study. Each piece of work bore the name of the pupil, his age and grade, and name of the school to which he belonged. There were also shown many pictures of school buildings. The exhibit as a whole attracted much attention. Mrs. E. E. Ford, who had the exhibit in charge, reported:

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[1] Arizona session laws, 1903, ch. 89.

[2] Ibid., 1903, ch. 46.

[3] Ibid., 1905, ch. 12.

> It has been a great surprise to the eastern people to see that we are doing the same work in our Arizona schools that they are doing here in the East. Our work compares most favorably with that of other schools in the same grades, and I have taken the time to examine other work that I might satisfy myself as to the merits of our own. In many cases I realize that our maps, language, work, and drawings are superior to that from many other schools. Many teachers come in to copy and to ask questions about Arizona schools.

The superintendent has only words of praise for the normal schools:

> I can say without fear of successful contradiction that the work accomplished by these schools is equal to, and in many instances surpasses, the work done by similar schools in older States and communities.

Of the 457 teachers, 148 had life or educational diplomas, 162 first-grade and 147 second-grade certificates. During the year, out of 168 who took the examinations, 17 received first-grade and 90 second-grade certificates; 108 graduates of the normal schools received diplomas without examination.

During this period a second high school was organized under the act of 1895 and located at Mesa, and a third at Prescott. Since the university and the two normal schools were also doing this class of work, it may be said that there were then six high schools in the Territory, one in the south (university), three in the middle (Union, Mesa, and Tempe), and two in the north (Prescott and Flagstaff).

The dependence of school districts on bonds as a means of building schoolhouses was increasing in importance. The total outstanding bonds in 1900–1902 amounted to $291,737.84, and in 1902–1904 to $355,737. The highest and prevailing rate of interest then paid was 7 per cent; in 1903–4 the average was 6 per cent, while the newer bonds were being issued at a rate as low as 5 per cent. They were generally for small amounts, and in 1903–4 were issued by 11 counties.

The whole administration of Supt. Layton may be characterized by saying that it was one of slow but steady and fairly uniform growth. There were no particular developments; the superintendent presented no brilliant or striking administration, but the schools continued to grow and develop in number; the teachers and pupils continued to increase, and the law was coming by slowly cumulating effort to suit itself to the needs of the country. The slow and steady growth made for the constant extension of the schools. The character of this development is brought out clearly in the statistics. There are in these years no separate reports from the counties.

III. THIRD ADMINISTRATION OF ROBERT L. LONG, 1906–1909.

Mr. Layton resigned and was succeeded January 1, 1906, by Mr. Robert L. Long, who then entered upon his third and last term as Territorial superintendent. He was reappointed in 1907 and served till March 17, 1909, completing in his three terms of service a little more than nine years. He published reports for the bienniums of 1905–6 and 1907–8. These appear to be, with two exceptions, the last printed reports issued by the department. It seems unreasonable that the educational report of a great and growing State should be less full and far less available, now that it has attained statehood, than it was in the earlier days of Territorial dependence, but such is the case. Since the report for 1907–8 the State has not maintained the standard of excellence set by the Territory in the matter of reporting on the work actually accomplished.

The 1905 session of the Territorial legislature was not rich in legislation dealing with the schools. Only a few acts were passed. One gave funds to Graham County to restore a schoolhouse at Clifton, destroyed by the flood of February, 1905; another provided for reestablishing schools whose houses had been destroyed by violence like the above, while other acts provided for support of the reform school and for the teaching of manual training and of music and drawing in the schools.

The new superintendent pointed out that the attendance on the schools was still—

> wholly voluntary, as the compulsory attendance law is so defective in some of its provisions that all attempts to enforce it have failed. If such a law is deemed necessary, it should compel the attendance of all children between the ages of 6 and 14 years during the entire time the schools are open. Habitual truants should be provided for at the industrial school.

As these remarks would indicate, the attendance was much as it had been in the past. In 1904 and 1905 the enrollment was 74.4 and 76.8 per cent of the school population, and the average attendance as measured on the basis of school population was only 47.4 and 47.7 per cent for these years, respectively; and while this was much better than in some of the States, it was so poor and irregular that the Territory was still paying more than $2 for every dollar's worth of services received.

In 1905, 10 new buildings were erected; in 1906 there were 12. Some of these were to supply the places of outgrown structures, but most were in new localities. Many were built on the latest and most approved plans, with ample playgrounds and supplied with the best furniture. The house at Douglas cost $15,000 and that at Bisbee about $70,000. Tucson paid $50,000 for a high-school building, and buildings of this character and cost were soon to become relatively common.

In a few instances these structures were erected out of the proceeds of a direct tax, some by shortening the school term; but most of them came out of the proceeds of bond issues. On June 30, 1906, the total outstanding bonds issued for school purposes was $490,937, with interest varying between 5 and 7 per cent. In many of the grammar grades, classes corresponding in a general way to the first and second high-school years were maintained. These higher classes were supported out of the regular district funds, and numbered 302 pupils in 1905, and 419 in 1906. While they militated against the lower grades, they were authorized by the board of education to meet the practical demands of the small towns which could not support a high school. There were now regularly organized high schools at Prescott, Phoenix, Mesa, Clifton, and Morenci, organized under the law of 1895, and supported entirely by special tax. They followed a regular course of study, which admitted to the University of Arizona. In 1905 they had 332 pupils and in 1906, 342. The income and expenditures in the last year exceeded $21,480.

Manual training was first permitted in the schools by chapter 20, acts of 1905. This law authorized any school to give instruction in manual training and domestic science, "provided that such subjects can be pursued without excluding or neglecting the subjects previously provided for by law." Districts with 200 children of school age might employ one teacher of these subjects for each 100 pupils in average attendance. These teachers were to be paid out of a special tax levied in the school district. Graduates of manual training or domestic science schools, with at least one year's experience, might be licensed to teach; others must pass such examination on these subjects as the board of education might prescribe.

In the matter of teachers the number was gradually increasing with the demand, and salaries were improving, taking a sudden jump in 1905–6 of $8.09 over the monthly pay of the year before. The salary of women teachers was not keeping up with that of men, for it increased only $1.51 per month in three years.

The income of the Territorial school fund was growing. It was based on a 3 cent tax on the $100 of taxable property; on a tax on insurance companies doing business in the Territory, and on the rentals on school lands, which amounted in 1906 to $5,800.56. The county funds were also increasing, and the school poll tax demanded of all persons between 21 and 60 years of age, whether citizens or aliens, produced in 1906, $74,818.

While there was sufficient money for the support of the schools handsomely, it was complained that under the system of distribution then in use—

> the small districts were unable to maintain school for 6 months, while the larger ones maintain sessions for 8 or 10 months during the year. It is sug-

gested that the fixed amounts now allowed these schools be increased from $400 and $500 to $500 and $600, respectively. The same results would be attained if the present allowances to these schools were lowered to $200 and $250, and the districts be permitted to share in the apportionments based on the daily attendance, as now made to the other schools.

In this report there is a return to individual statements from the county superintendents which give us an insight into the workings of the school system in its various parts and the difficulties which each was called on to face. Thus, in Apache County the difficulty was racial and linguistic. In some sections Spanish-speaking pupils predominated, and when teachers came into such districts without acquaintance with Spanish little progress was possible. For this reason it was suggested that such teachers be required to have a practical knowledge of Spanish. In Navajo County it was suggested that separate schools be provided for Americans and Mexicans. In Cochise County it was desired that the compulsory age be extended from 14 to 16 years. Gila demanded that the apportionment of school funds be amended. Pima suggested that the laws be so amended as to permit all schools to be open for eight months, which was impossible for the country districts as the law then stood, because of the lack of funds.

The reports from the high and normal schools for these years were extremely satisfactory. They showed a development and growth that was fairly uniform.

The report of the superintendent for 1907–8 was of the same general character as that for the two years preceding. Mr. Long was again appointed superintendent, and the development and growth were of the same character as in the former years. The most marked increase was in the southern counties, and was due to the increased activities in mining interests.

The school law was somewhat amended in 1907, among other matters the compulsory law. This amendment required that every employer of child labor should require proof, under penalty of fine, that any child employed had been duly excused from school attendance; and in case of children unable to read and write English the compulsory period was extended from 14 to 16 years. But, like earlier laws, there was not sufficient machinery by which the requirements of this law might be enforced.

By this same amendment the rule of apportionment was so amended that $500 was to go to districts with 10 to 20 children (class 1); $600 to districts with 20 children or more (class 2); and to districts having an average daily attendance of 25 or more (class 3) was to be apportioned "$25 per capita, upon the average daily attendance in excess of 25 pupils." In addition to the above, schools which increased their average attendance over that of the previous year were entitled to certain reserve funds, but no district was to be entitled to funds which had not kept its school open for six months during the previous year. The county superintendents were now allowed $250 per year for traveling expenses, while the office of the Territorial superintendent, hitherto peripatetic in accord with the convenience of the holder, was to be in the capitol and the salary increased to $2,000. No part of the school funds received from Territorial or county apportionments could be used for the payment of interest or principal of bonds or in the purchase of real estate for school purposes.

The institutes were now allowed for their support 5 per cent of the county funds assigned to education, in addition to the fee of $2 charged for the teachers' examination for certificate. The institute session was not to exceed five days nor be less than three.

Districts having over 1,000 census children might now employ a supervising principal, and two or more contiguous districts might jointly employ such principal. Small schools with an average attendance of less than eight pupils were to be suspended and the district allowed to lapse.

The Territorial superintendent was under the impression that the compulsory school attendance law as amended in 1907 was responsible for the reduction in school absentees from 19 per cent in 1907 to 16 per cent in 1908. Since that date, if the figures of the superintendent's report are to be relied on, there has been a still further reduction in the absentees. The figures for recent years are by no means complete or uniform, but they show a relative high record of enrollment and average attendance.

Of this situation in 1907–8 the superintendent said:

> The bad showing that 5,463 children under 21 years of age were not in school last year is more apparent than real, however. It is well known that a large percentage of pupils, especially boys, leave school to earn a livelihood before they reach the age of 21. Indeed, the average age throughout the country is estimated at 14 years, when pupils quit the public schools. Those who complete the high-school course graduate at about the age of 18. Hence it is manifest that, as the census comprises all pupils between the ages of 6 and 21, it will include many who have not attended school that year but who nevertheless have completed the entire course of study of both the grammar and the high school.

Of the per cents of those out of the public schools during these years it should be said that for the purposes of this study those who were enrolled in private schools are treated the same as if they were not in school at all. The number who actually attended no school in 1906–7 was 6,505, or 19.6 per cent; in 1907–8 it had been reduced to 5,463, or 15.9 per cent; in 1912–13 and 1913–14 the corresponding figures were 8,743 and 10,833, being 18.5 and 20 per cent of the total school population at that time. In 1914–15 and 1915–16 the figures were 7,246 and 2,814, or 13 per cent and 4.6 per cent entirely out of school.

The remarks of Mr. Long on the compulsory law in 1907–8 apparently serve as accurately for later dates. He then said:

> The average daily attendance on the schools shows but little, if any, increase in percentage over preceding years. The compulsory attendance law, though but poorly enforced in many localities, has evidently brought into the schools a large number of children, but there seems to have been difficulty in keeping them in school, as shown by reports of the daily attendance. The law at present is only useful for its moral effect. Perhaps the best inducement, after all, for parents to send their children to school is to convince them that the schools are worth attending. When this has been done there will be no need of compulsory attendance laws, which, at best, are regarded by many as un-American.

The large increase in school population was creating a demand for more school buildings; 8 new ones were erected in 1907 and 29 in 1908. The aggregate cost of these 37 buildings was $184,000, most of it being expended in the growing cities of the Territory and much of it for high-school facilities. The reapportionment of school funds under the revised law of 1907 increased the school term from 128.4 days in 1907 to 135 days in 1908. This increase was entirely in the small country schools. The cities had already attained to terms of 9 and 10 months.

The city schools as covered in this report show steady development and progress. Most of them had now organized high schools to complete and round out their courses, and these high schools were becoming more and more complete in themselves, and the one in Prescott had been placed on the accredited lists of Michigan, California, and Vassar. Their course, however, had not yet been made uniform and, while they supplied the needs of the larger towns, they had not as yet, with two exceptions only attempted to cater to the more rural population and it was not till about 1914 that the distinctly rural high school appeared.

During this period there was no upheaval nor extensive change in the administration of the schools. No such violent change was needed or desired. Taken as a whole the schools continued their gradual evolution upward; changes were made here and there in the details of administration as necessity seemed to demand. The funds for the smaller county schools were increased to some extent by larger apportionments, and the increased length of term and better schools tended to induce a better attendance of pupils, the teachers were better paid, and perhaps in no other State was there as little trouble in raising the necessary funds as in Arizona. These seem to have been well expended, and the general progress was steadily upward.

IV. ADMINISTRATION OF KIRKE T. MOORE, 1901–1912.

On March 17, 1909, Mr. Long as Territorial superintendent was succeeded by Kirke T. Moore, who continued to hold the reins of office until the Territory became a State. There was during these years little of moment or significance. The schools had been given their peculiar turn and were now developing steadily. There was little educational legislation, but it was of no slight significance. One act provided for uniform courses of study in the normal schools at Tempe and Flagstaff, and these were to be prescribed by the board of education.[1] The training schools provided at the normal schools as part of their regular work were now formally recognized as a part of the public school system.

It was now provided also that negro pupils might be segregated when the proper authorities thought it desirable and the number of such pupils exceeded eight in any school district, provided they were furnished equal accommodations. In the earlier reports there is only one record of negro children—28 in 1883. Later reports begin in 1902–3 and run as follows:

1902–3	129
1903–4	167
1904–5	157
1905–6	171
1906–7	210
1907–8	274

These pupils, scattered throughout the Territory, had been taught with other pupils, but as their numbers increased, an agitation for segregation began. The matter was taken up in the assembly of 1909 and discussed. The bill was vetoed by the governor, but was passed over his veto.[2] Then it was taken to the courts, coming up on appeal from the third judicial district (Maricopa County), where a suit for injunction had been tried before Judge Edward Kent and granted. The case was taken to the highest court by the school board and is reported as Dameron, et al., appellants, *v.* Samuel F. Bayless, appellee. It is reported in 14 Arizona, 180. The constitutionality of the act of 1909 was attacked on the ground that it was "a denial of the equal protection of the law." It was shown that the building used for the negro school was the newest, best constructed, and most sanitary of all the school buildings in the district; that its equipment was equal if not superior to the others and that the pupils received more attention, because the attendance was smaller, than they received in the white schools; and that the course of study was the same. The conclusion of the court was in substance that "equality and not identity of privileges and rights is what is guaranteed to the citizens." The judgment of the lower court was reversed and the case remanded with directions to vacate the injunction and dismiss.[1] No statistics giving later figures on this phase of public school work have been seen.

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[1] Sess. Acts, 1909, ch. 58.

[2] Ibid., ch. 67.

In November, 1910, the Territorial Teachers' Association appointed a committee, consisting of Kirke T. Moore, the Territorial superintendent; John D. Loper, city superintendent; and A. J. Matthews, superintendent of the Tempe Normal School, to rewrite "the entire school law in order to incorporate the new recommendations and to correct existing ambiguities and irregularities." When the committee first met the proposed State constitution was pending and it was decided to await the completion of the constitution before the school law was taken up, the proposed amendments to the school law being published in the meantime in the Arizona Journal of Education for the purpose of information. The ultimate result of these conferences and revisions was the school law as it appeared in the school code of 1913.

Mr. Moore was the last superintendent under the Territorial régime. He was reared in Tucson and was educated at the University of Arizona and at the Leland Stanford, where he took a degree in law. He opened a law office in Tucson and maintained it through a partner while performing the duties of Territorial superintendent of public instruction. He went out of office with the inauguration of the new State officers and returned to the law on March 12, 1912. He had, in the meantime won from his contemporaries the reputation of "a good and faithful officer." The Arizona Journal of Education in its issue for October, 1911, says:[2]

> Mr. Moore will have served as superintendent of schools almost three years. During his term of office he has worked with a rare degree of fidelity and has shown great resourcefulness in handling the work with the small equipment of funds that the Territory furnishes. He has brought dignity and business methods to his office and in dealing with the schools he has shown tact and skill. No one has ever brought against him a charge of indifference or neglect, and everywhere he has appeared he has inspired confidence in his fairness and wisdom. While he is not a trained educator, he has still shown knowledge as well as wisdom in his dealings with the schools. He is especially characterized by common sense and good judgment, and those traits go a long way in bringing success anywhere. His management only shows how much of school work can be done by them.

The days preceding statehood also saw the evolution of the latest form of the course of study. This course, proposed and adopted by the Territorial board of education, is much fuller than any of the preceding courses and contains many elaborated suggestions and directions. Special attention was given in its compilation to the preparation of book lists for supplementary reading and reference for pupils and progressive teachers. The course was drawn up to suit the work of graded schools covering eight years of nine months each and toward the realization of which all schools in the Territory were working. The scope of the year's work is stated at the beginning and this is followed by a detailed month by month plan, but the apportionment of the work month by month is suggestive rather than mandatory; the making of individual adjustments was wisely left to principals and teachers. The course was expected to give the more general satisfaction because it was not the work of the board alone, but in reality represents the combined experience and wisdom of some 50 teachers of the Territory. Published in 1910, it was again issued in 1912, and has been since its publication the recognized basis of teaching in the public schools of the Territory and State.

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[1] Sec. 14, Arizona Reports, 180, July, 1912; and 123 Pacific Reporter. See also subdivision II of par. 2179 of Civil Code of 1901.

[2] Vol. 2, p. 93.

In 1911–12, the last year of the Territorial form of government for Arizona, the statistics indicated the greatest height of prosperity to which the schools had as yet attained. The school population was that year 42,381, of whom 78.6 per cent were enrolled in the public schools, without considering the private enrollment; the average attendance when measured on enrollment amounted to 68.5 per cent, and of the total school population 53.8 per cent were in daily attendance for the term. The average monthly salary of the 895 men and women teachers was $86.58; there were 814 primary and grammar-grade schools and 16 high schools. The total school property was valued at $1,845,021. The total funds raised for school purposes were $1,817,647, of which $58,308 came from the Territory; $633,397 from county and local sources; and $1,125,943 from fines and forfeitures, rents from lands, bonds sold, special taxes, and balances. There was spent for schools in all $1,321,595, of which $890,533 went for school maintenance. Surely here was a Territory well capable of entering upon the duties of Statehood.

Chapter VIII.

THE FIRST STATE ADMINISTRATION OF SCHOOLS.

By the act of Congress of June 20, 1910, provision was made for the meeting of a constitutional convention in Arizona. This convention was instructed to provide also for the election of officers for the new State. This election was held about December, 1911. The State was admitted into the Union February 14, 1912. The enabling act under which the State was admitted began by declaring for the maintenance of a public school system to be open to all, free from sectarian control, and always conducted in English. Sections 16 and 36 and 2 and 32 of the public land were set aside for an endowment, and while the congressional act of June 20, 1910, expressly declares that the internal improvements act of September 4, 1841, the swamp-lands act of September 28, 1850, and the agricultural act of July 2, 1862, should not apply to Arizona, there was granted in lieu of these and all other donations and in addition to the four sections named above, land for educational purposes, as follows:

Federal grants for education in Arizona.

	Acres.
For the university	200,000
For schools and asylums for the deaf, dumb, and the blind	100,000
For normal schools	200,000
For State charitable, penal, and reformatory institutions	100,000
For agricultural and mechanical colleges	150,000
For school of mines	150,000
For military institutes	100,000
For the payment of bonds issued by certain counties, municipalities, and school districts prior to January 1, 1897[1]	1,000,000

If there should be any surplus after these bonds were paid, it was to be added to the permanent school fund. Thus, in addition to the four sections in each township, there was given to the new State a total of 2,000,000 acres of land (or a total of more than 10,000,000 acres in all), most of which went directly to education, and there was the further promise of the usual 5 per cent of the net sales of public land by the Federal Government after the Territory had become a State. This sum was to be "a permanent and inviolable fund," and the interest only was to be expended. No mortgage or other incumbrance on any part of these lands "in favor of any person or for any purpose or under any circumstance whatsoever" should ever be paid.

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[1] In addition to the above, 350,000 acres were given for matters that were only indirectly educational—for legislative, executive, and judicial public buildings, 100,000 acres; for penitentiaries, 100,000 acres; for insane asylums, 100,000 acres; for hospitals for disabled miners, 50,000 acres.

The constitution itself as finally drawn provided for a public-school system and recognized it as including the kindergarten, common, high, normal, and industrial schools, and a university, "which shall include an agricultural college, a school of mines, and such other technical schools as may be essential." The permanent school fund was recognized and reaffirmed; the minimum school term was fixed at six months; and the method of selling the school land and administering the school fund was outlined. The price for irrigated land was fixed at $25 and of others at $3, and lands were to be neither sold nor leased except to "the highest and best bidder."

A conservative estimate placed on the value of the school lands by the Arizona Journal of Education in December, 1911 (p. 122), credits the land gifts of the Federal Government to the State for educational purposes as of a then value of $20,000,000.

The new constitution provided that no sectarian instruction should ever be imparted in any school or State educational institution, and that no religious or political test of qualifications should be required as condition of admission to any public educational institution as teacher, student, or pupil. Further than this, the new constitution took the office of State superintendent out of the appointive group and made it an elective one, and since political parties were already organized in the Territory the race for the superintendency in 1911 was made by Prof. Claude D. Jones and Supt. C. O. Case. Mr. Case won and became the first superintendent of public instruction for the new State of Arizona. Mr. Case is a native of Illinois and was educated at Hillsdale College, Mich. He taught in Kansas and then went to California. He came to Arizona in 1889; settled in Phoenix and taught almost continuously for 25 years. He has been superintendent of schools in Globe, Mest, Prescott, and Jerome; he taught English in the Prescott High School; was principal of the high school at Phoenix and organized its commercial department. He is also known by his writings, for he has been a contributor of poems and stories to coast magazines. These have brought favorable criticism and have served to spread abroad the reputation of Arizona schools and teachers.[1]

Mr. Case entered upon his duties with the organization of the new State administration March 12, 1912, and upon duties in a field which was not new or unorganized, but it was the privilege of the first State superintendent to take up the subject where his predecessor had left it and the transition from Territory to State made little difference in the administration of schools. Mr. Case made a preliminary report for the State to the first State legislature; has published two biennial reports, 1913–14 and 1915–16, a perusal of which will indicate the course taken in the development of State education during the more recent years.

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[1] Arizona Journal of Education, December, p. 123.

Writing in 1914 the superintendent pointed out that for the biennium then reported the public schools had made "commendable progress," and this may well be the characterization of the whole period. The "spirit of interest and progressiveness" was active and the outlay of money was greater than during the Territorial period, but as the superintendent points out, there was not, at this time, final authority for the interpretation of the school law. It was urged that the superintendent of public instruction—

> make such interpretations and render such opinions and that these, when given by him and approved by the attorney general of the State, should be held to be correct and final until set aside by a court of competent jurisdiction or by subsequent legislation.

Another phase of the activities of the new school spirit are the efforts now being made to standardize the schools. For this purpose the interests of all parties who are engaged in school work, teachers, trustees, patrons, county superintendents, and others must be brought into a working whole. The school first secures a place on the probationary list when it can make 75 per cent on the standard school points; when a score of 85 per cent has been attained the school has become a standard school, while a grade of 95 per cent puts it down as a superior school. Points counted in this evolution cover school grounds and buildings, teachers, school board, and pupils.

This attempt at standardizing had, no doubt, a good effect on building. During the years just preceding admission as a State there had been little money spent for school buildings. This decline was now more than made good, the expenditures amounting to $490,000 in 1913–14; to nearly $600,000 in 1914–15; and to $469,000 in 1915–16, practically all of these sums being raised by the issue of bonds.

There is a marked tendency in all the schools of the State looking toward making the system of public schools more and more practical. This is shown in the constantly increasing demand for industrial education which is constantly widening the activities of the schools and demanding an increasing share of the public-school funds. The industrial departments in the high schools are doing commendable work on these lines. Some have night schools as well as day schools. In 1911–12 there was paid out of the State school fund to 10 high schools (including the Tempe Normal School) the sum of

$18,401.18 for vocational work done. Since that date the payments have steadily increased; in 1912–13 there was paid to 16 high schools (including the two normal schools at Tempe and Flagstaff) $27,495.55; in 1913–14 it was $36,423.11 to 21 schools; and in 1914–15 $44,823.89 was paid for the work done in 21 schools. The largest sum was $2,500, paid to each of 15 institutions; the smallest was $248.72, paid to the Safford schools.

The provisions under which high schools are paid for work done in agriculture, mining, manual training, domestic science, and other vocational pursuits are based on chapter 80, second special session, laws of 1913, and finally by section 2797 of the school code of 1913 it was provided that normal schools when they had satisfactory rooms and equipment for giving "elementary training in agriculture, mining, manual training, domestic science, or other vocational pursuits" should participate on the same terms as the high schools in the public funds devoted to that purpose.

Another phase of the industrial education of the State is included under the work of the Territorial Industrial School. First provided for in 1893 under the title of "reform school," it led an uncertain existence until 1903, when its name was changed from reform to industrial[1] and its location fixed at Benson. It was then given 1 cent on the hundred for maintenance and 4 cents for improvements. It was reported as in satisfactory condition in 1909 and received that year $22,000, and the same for 1910, to be raised by what levy might be necessary and expended under direction of the board of control.[2] Then came an agitation to change the school location; a very unfavorable report was made on its work and surroundings in 1912[3] and the agitation culminated in 1913 in an act[4] for its removal to the abandoned Fort Grant military reservation as soon as water rights could be secured. The State had secured from Congress in 1912 a grant of 2,000 acres of the old military reservation, together with all the improvements.[5] It was estimated that these improvements, which had originally cost $500,000, were still worth $225,000, and while the site was at a distance from the main lines of travel, the altitude, which is about 4,500 feet, the fertility of the soil, and its adaptability to dairying, stock raising, horticulture, and agriculture more tha nequaled its disadvantages, and it was thought that the institution should soon become self-sustaining.

But the course of development of this school has not run as smoothly as it was hoped. There has been a rapid change of superintendents, one having proved recreant to his trust, and his successor, while of

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[1] Session of 1903, ch. 72.

[2] Session of 1909, ch. 106.

[3] See H. J., 1912, special session, pp. 142–149.

[4] Laws of 1913, second special session, ch. 23.

[5] Act of Aug. 13, 1912.

"high integrity and strict morals," disagreed with the board of control on the question of corporal punishment and was dismissed; another increased the running expenses by 72 per cent in a single year, and the State auditor complained that there was a tendency on the part of officials to conceal objectionable occurrences.[1] It is frankly admitted that this is the most expensive of the State institutions, its per capita cost being considerably more than that of some other institutions. It is conceded, however, that its location is not favorable to a creditable showing in this respect, while its smaller enrollment accounts for a part of this increased cost. The cost of the Industrial School, for both maintenance and improvements, has been as follows: 1897, $279.50; 1902, $15,375.35; 1903, $13,868.22; 1904, $25,482.18; 1907, $24,086.30; 1908, $15,129.86; 1911, $24,642.91; 1912, $26,768.87; 1913, $40,520.41; 1914, $86,088.86; 1915, $61,568.12; 1916, $42,445.15.

The State has now also taken over and conducts the education of its deaf, dumb, and blind children. During Territorial days this duty had been performed under contract by institutions in California and Utah, the contract price being $350 per pupil per year. During these years the annual cost for this service was, as far as the reports of the State auditor show—1900, $543.90; 1901, $1,770; 1902, $1,770; 1903, $2,337.50; 1904, $1,500.

When the State took over this work it was located in rented buildings in Tucson. The school opened with 17 pupils. It had its own equipment, but there was little facility for carrying on its work and the school was then in great need of better classrooms, reading rooms, sitting rooms, and a well-equipped library. In 1915–16 there were 26 children in school, which was about half the known defectives in the State. The expenditures in recent years have been—1912, $1,546; 1913, $4,544.14; 1914, $9,610.65; 1915, $13,987.27; 1916, $14,983.67.

The rural schools, with a population more than twice as large as that of the urban schools, are now doing work of such vital importance that expert rural supervision is becoming a necessary step "toward equalizing the educational advantages of city and country."[2] It was in accord with this idea that Dr. Neil was employed as State high-school inspector, but little special work has as yet been done for the grade schools. They are still under the care of the county superintendent, who is, first of all, a politician and sometimes without special qualifications for the more professional duties of his office. In addition to this, he generally has under his control more schools than he can properly administer; in some cases he does not devote all of his time to the work and is often without help in performing the routine duties of his office.

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[1] See auditor's reports for 1912, 1913, 1914, and 1915, where there is sharp and vigorous, but nevertheless sound and sane, criticism of this and other institutions. Indeed, quite the best criticism that has been found anywhere of the Arizona public institutions are these incidental notes of J. C. Callaghan, State auditor, 1912–1917.

[2] The school law of 1913 provided that the county superintendent should apportion to each district "not less than $35 per capita upon the average daily attendance" as determined in a certain way, but no district was to receive an apportionment of less than $350.

Another topic which has agitated the school world of Arizona during recent years is the county unit plan. While there was county organization to a certain extent, the plan offered in this connection meant still more centralization. The superintendent warns that while this might be good it might also be used " for the worst politics and abuse of power." If accepted at all, the superintendent thought that it should be by local option, and he approved the proposal then made to appoint county school commissioners and county school superintendents rather than elect them.

Supt. Case reports that the arrangement of the matter of textbooks was, in general, " fairly satisfactory." The law as revised in 1913 provided for a State-wide furnishing of free textbooks and paid all contingent expenses. When books were adopted the law required them to be used for five years and did not permit that more than one be changed each year. This worked a hardship, for it meant practical adoption each year. Books were loaned to pupils and were required to be fumigated before being reissued. The cost of these books to the State when first adopted in 1913–14 was $102,033.96. This stood for a total of 368,866 books received during the year and meant a cost of $2.42 for each child enrolled and $3.62 for each in average daily attendance. The next year there was paid out $31,983.16 for 96,745 new books and in 1915–16 a total of $33,637.60 for 122,424. The sales to pupils and the collection on books lost did not usually equal the contingent expenses of distribution. According to these figures the cost of supplying textbooks the first year after a new adoption was nearly $2.50 per pupil enrolled, and the cost of maintenance was about 70 cents per enrolled pupil.

The school law of 1913 provided a new section on teachers' pensions. After a service of 25 years as a teacher in the public schools, the State board of education may order and direct that such person be retired and paid an annual pension of $600 out of the school fund of the State. The faults of this law are said to be in the main those of omission. There is no provision for incapacity during service, for widows or orphans. It provides a straight pension from State sources, but the pension has no relation to the salary previously received. There is demand for a tax to meet the cost of the system. Among the first teachers retired under this law were Miss Elizabeth Post, who taught from 1872 to 1913, and Prof. Charles H. Tully, ex-superintendent of the schools of Tucson and secretary of the old Territorial Teachers' Association.

Besides reviewing the progress which had been made since admission as a State, the superintendent mentions in his report other objectives not yet attained. These include the question of a school accounting commission. The purpose of this proposal is to secure a higher degree of economy in the administration of State funds. It was urged that such a commission should be created by the assembly, and it should be its duty to unravel and straighten the "unsystematic and haphazard" method used in school accounting.

It was with this state of affairs in mind that the State tax commission took up for discussion in its report for 1914 (pp. 21–22) the question of State taxes for schools. It points out that there was appropriated for education in 1913, $1,026,407.50 and in 1914, $1,006,537.50, these sums representing practically 55 per cent of the entire tax levy of the State. The sum thus appropriated for schools in 1914 was $100,000 greater than the entire appropriations for all purposes in 1911. The primary object in creating this large school fund was said to be (1) to establish a fund for the purchase of free textbooks for all the common schools of the State and (2) for the creation of an additional fund "sufficient in amount so that such counties as Graham and Santa Cruz, having a large school population and at that time a small assessed valuation, could make it possible to maintain their schools for the entire school year."

In other words the State of Arizona does what so many older States do—collects taxes on the basis of property valuation and immediately redistributes them on the basis of school population. The commission remarks that the intent of the law seems to have been that the county levy should decrease in proportion to the amount received from the State; that this has not always been the case; that the tendency has been to consider the sums derived from the State "in the nature of an additional or gratuitous amount to that which had formerly been received from the county," and that in consequence the State money was in part at least lost sight of.

The commission suggests that inasmuch as the textbook fund is now provided for, better results would follow "if a larger proportion of these funds came to the schools direct through the regular county channels."

In another connection the commission pertinently remarks (p. 32):

> If the counties individually or in conjunction with the State bought all the school supplies, a saving of at least 25 per cent would be secured to the taxpayer. Generally speaking, the school funds are too loosely handled. No adequate system of accounting for all expenditures is universally enforced or required. No comprehensive compilations of statistics are kept, so that any taxpayer can judge the efficiency or economy of administration. If these defects are cured, present leaks would stop automatically.

Other lines of improvement still to be striven for were, in the opinion and recommendation of the State superintendent: (1) Standardization of schools; (2) certification of teachers; (3) promotion of teachers' and pupils' reading circle work; (4) enlargement and improvement of school library districts; (5) securing an annual meeting of school boards; (6) other amendments for improving school laws.

Certain other phases of public-school development demanding more attention in this study than they have as yet received include the following subjects:

I. THE COUNTY SUPERINTENDENT.

Since the organization of the State the question of the office and pay of the county superintendent has been definitely fixed.

It will be recalled that in the early days the duties of the county superintendent were performed by the county judge of probate. For the performance of these duties he received $100 per year, serving ostensibly as an expense account, but in reality as payment for the supposed performance of the educational duties of the office. Various efforts were made to increase this salary, and other efforts sought to separate the duties of the office of judge of probate from those of county school superintendent. Finally, in 1897, the counties which had attained a valuation of more than $3,000,000 each—Maricopa, Yavapai, Pima, and Cochise—were erected into what was known as class 1; the offices of probate judge and county superintendent were separated; and the county school superintendent was allowed a salary of $1,000 per year. Out of this sum he paid his own expenses, and the State superintendent complained that when this had been done he had only $250 left as salary. The Territory then allowed an extra $150 for expenses, and in 1907 this was raised to $250 and the county superintendent was required to visit each school twice during the year under penalty of losing $10 from his salary for each failure; he was, however, at liberty to deputize as a visitor "some competent person" residing in the neighborhood when the school in question was more than 75 miles from the county seat.[1]

In 1909 the salary of the probate judge and ex officio county school superintendent (the offices not being separated in counties of the second class) was fixed at $1,200, with fees. In counties of the third, fourth, fifth, and sixth classes, this officer as county school superintendent received a salary of $300 and in addition thereto as probate judge he received fees and such salary as might be fixed by the board of supervisors, not less than $300 nor more than $600.[2]

In 1910 the committee on the revisal of the school law purposed that the law be so amended that the counties be divided into three classes with salaries for the county superintendents of $2,400, $1,500, and $1,000 attached. Under this proposed law county superintendents were excused from visiting schools when a supervising principal was employed.[1]

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[1] Laws of Arizona, 1907, ch. 67, p. 100.

[2] Sess. acts, 1909, ch. 19, p. 40.

This proposal failed, however, to become a law, and in its stead there was passed in 1912 a law which separated the office in all counties and fixed a schedule of pay for the school superintendents. The 14 counties of the State were divided into 14 classes and payment allowed the county school superintendents as follows:[2]

Salaries of county superintendents.

Class.	Counties.	Population.	Pay.	Extra allowance for traveling expenses.
1	Maricopa	35,000 and over	$2,[illegible]	(1)
2	Cochise	25,000 to 35,000	2,[illegible]	[illegible]
3	Pima	20,000 to 25,000	1,[illegible]	(2)
4	Yavapai	16,000 to 20,000	2,[illegible]	[illegible]
5	Greenlee	15,000 to 16,000	1,[illegible]	(2)
6	Gila	10,000 to 15,000	2,[illegible]	[illegible]
7	Graham	8,000 to 10,000	1,[illegible]	[illegible]
8	Yuma	7,500 to 8,000	1,[illegible]	(2)
9	Santa Cruz	7,000 to 7,500	[illegible]	[illegible]
10	Pinal	6,500 to 7,000	1,[illegible]	[illegible]
11	Navajo	6,000 to 6,500	1,4[illegible]	(2)
12	Coconino	5,500 to 6,000	1,5[illegible]	(2)
13	Mohave	4,000 to 5,500	[illegible]	[illegible]
14	Apache	Less than 4,000	1,[illegible]	[illegible]

[1] Actual traveling expenses and clerk also allowed at $100 per month.
[2] Actual traveling expenses.
[3] Actual traveling expenses, and deputy allowed at $75 per month only while superintendent is away visiting schools.

II. ARIZONA TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

The Arizona Teachers' Association, dates from December 23, 1892. It was first organized at Phoenix during the administration of Supt. Netherton, and because of lack of members usually met with one of the county institutes, as their objects were substantially similar. This continued until 1910, when it held its nineteenth annual meeting jointly with the county institute at Douglas. It was estimated that 300 teachers were in attendance at that session, and an interesting program was offered. The principal teachers were from other States, and presented educational doctrines that were "practical, interesting, and suited to the needs of the teachers," or were "wholesome, uplifting, and instructive." But one paper, entitled "Attic Treasures," served to enliven the meeting. This was a caustic criticism of the schools and their present-day methods, a spectacular and impassioned plea against the "more tawdry and showy gargoyles of modern schoolroom practice." It was not pleasing to the leaders. An editorial in the Arizona Journal of Education serves to illustrate the attitude of the various types of teachers. This was the last meeting in which the teachers' association and the county institutes met in joint session.

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[1] Arizona Journal of Education, April, 1910, p. 81.
[2] Sess. acts, 1912, ch. 93.

Taken all in all the proceedings show that the teachers are becoming better organized, that they are grasping more fully the fundamentals of the profession, and that they are broadening in the scope of their vision so as to cover primary, grammar, and high-school grades of instruction, together with the county board's and superintendent's phases of the work.[1]

More recent meetings of the association (the 24th session being in 1916) have been held at the University of Arizona, and while not so exciting as that in 1910 have been of service in advancing the general cause of education.[2] The association at that time also indorsed the survey of schools in the State then about to be taken by the Bureau of Education. A separate survey had been already proposed. The association urged that the minutes of the proceedings of the State board of education be published; that it appoint permanent committees for the revision of the course of study; that the $500,000 common-school levy should be made permanent; that a State committee on high-school libraries be appointed with a specified program of duties, to collect information and make recommendations; and that a permanent State educational council be established to regulate and improve the course of study, adopt textbooks, urge constitutional changes, and fix educational policy.

III. EDUCATIONAL JOURNALISM.

During the closing years of Territorial life the teaching profession had also come to feel itself strong enough to establish a professional organ. The first number of the Arizona Journal of Education appeared at Phœnix for April, 1910, declaring itself to be "devoted to education in general and to the schools and the cause of education in Arizona in particular." It was to be published five times in the school year and was edited temporarily by T. L. Bolton, with C. L. Phelps and J. F. Hall as business managers. Many of the leading teachers gave their aid, and the journal was devoted to discussions of educational subjects interesting to the profession. The nine numbers published in 1910 and 1911 have been seen. It does not appear that the issues of this periodical extended beyond volume 2, the last number seen being the issue for December, 1911 (vol. 2, No. 4).

The next effort at school journalism was apparently The Arizona Teacher, of which the first number seen is that for June, 1914, being volume 1, No. 5. It has been continued since that date, apparently at irregular intervals. It is published at Tucson and the editor is I. Colodny, formerly a teacher in the university. Devoted to the cause of education in general, it has sought in particular to increase the interest in State history, to standardize schools and improve the condition of teachers; in the last year, however, it seems to have become in the main an opposition organ seeking to overthrow the president of the university and the State superintendent.

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[1] See program printed in Arizona Journal of Education, December, 1910, I, pp. 120–123, and a review of the proceedings in February, 1911.

[2] See proceedings in Arizona Teacher, vol. 5, May, 1916, pp. 8–15.

IV. SCHOOL SURVEY.

In 1915 a legislative proposal was made looking toward a general survey of the school system of the State.[1] This movement was based on a favorable report looking to the same end recently made by the State Teachers' Association, but as soon as the appropriation in the bill was stricken out, the matter lost its interest to many. The United States Bureau of Education was then called on to undertake this work in connection with the State department of public instruction, and its results are now being published. This survey included the elementary and secondary schools of the cities and rural communities, the State normal and the university, and its purpose was to find out the facts as they are, to report them fairly, to interpret them, and to make constructive suggestions as to improvements in the general administrative school system of the State as a whole. While commending in general the work of the schools as of "high rank, comparing favorably with those of the other States most advanced in education," the survey points out that in the State—

> there is lacking the centralized administration necessary if all educational agencies in the State are to be kept in touch with each other and if definite constructive leadership is to be furnished so that State-wide progress will be had without unnecessary delay and expense.

The survey then makes the following summary of its general recommendations:

> 1. Centralization of the State school system, placing the responsibility of providing equal educational opportunities definitely upon the State board of education and the State department of education working in cooperation with the county boards of education and school district trustees.
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> 2. Reorganization of the State board of education, conferring upon it enlarged powers. It should be composed of seven persons, not necessarily engaged in education, appointed by the governor with the approval of the senate. The term of office should be at least eight years, not more than two terms expiring each biennium. The State superintendent should be its executive officer; all of its duties should be carried out through him.
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> 3. Provision for a nonpolitical State superintendent who shall be the head of an enlarged and more effective State department of education. He should be

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[1] There has been at least one county survey—that of Maricopa County—made during 1915–16 and published during the present year (Phoenix [1917], p. 8). This survey was made at the instance of the County Teachers' Association and the Arizona State Taxpayers' Association, and is a strong indictment of the inefficiency of schools as conducted on a district system and strongly recommends the county unit.

selected and appointed by the State board of education for his particular fitness for the position. The department should have, in addition to the State superintendent, at least two general assistants as field agents, also a State school architect, and expert statistician, a chief of division of certification, and one person in charge of textbook distribution.

4. Provision for county control of county school funds through county boards of education and nonpolitical county superintendents. The county is now the unit of support; there should be in each county a county board of education charged with the general management of the schools of the county, composed of five persons not engaged in school work, elected by popular vote, the term of office being at least six years. The board should appoint the county superintendent, who should be its executive officer and the supervisor of all schools except in city districts employing superintendents.

5. Reorganization of the method of apportioning State funds on a basis which recognizes county and local effort. There should be paid to each county approximately $200 for every teacher employed; whatever remains should be apportioned to the counties on the basis of the aggregate attendance.

6. Requirements for a higher standard of general and professional education for teachers, a revision of the method of certification, establishment of a certification division in the State department of education, which would be also a teachers' employment bureau.

7. Means to encourage the erection of suitable school buildings and to prevent further erection of undesirbale ones by having the plans for all school buildings submitted to the State department for approval. The department should employ a school architect.

8. Local school organization should continue, the trustees acting as custodians of the school property, immediate overseers of the school, and agents of the county board. High-school districts and elementary school districts should be made coterminous by consolidating all common-school districts now located in union high-school districts in one district for both elementary and high-school purposes under the same management and control. The high schools, as well as elementary schools, should be supported largely by the State and county funds and should be free from tuition to all pupils of the county.

9. Provision for expert supervision of rural schools. The supervision of the instructional work in all schools outside of those in independent cities employing full-time superintendents should be under the direction of the county superintendent. He should be an able educator, fitted by experience and training, and have adequate office help and assistant supervisors when necessary. He should be selected and appointed by the county board of education and retained in office as long as satisfactory work is done.

10. Reorganization of the method of handling State textbooks to prevent unnecessary losses. There should be one person employed in the State department to devote his entire time to the management of proper care and delivery of textbooks; county superintendents should be responsible for the requisitions submitted. District clerks should be bonded and held responsible for the care and delivery of the books to the school. The cost of textbooks furnished to each county by the State should be deducted from the State funds after apportionment to the counties but before distribution.

11. The two State normal schools should be placed under the control and management of the reorganized State board of education. Also this board should be given the control and management of the State Industrial School. A careful investigation should be made to determine whether a special institution for mental defectives is needed at the present time.

12. The teachers' pension system is not in accordance with pension schemes generally recognized as acceptable. It should be revised.

13. Money for support of the State department, for teachers' pensions, and other special purposes should be provided by direct appropriation and not taken from the State school fund.

V. CITY AND HIGH SCHOOLS

There has been in Arizona little differentiation between city and other public schools. The city schools have received the favors and privileges which naturally always come to the strongest districts, but have in other respects had a development substantially the same as all other schools. This similarity of all schools in Arizona is due to the conditions of their evolution. In the earlier days city schools were the only ones, for, because of the conditions of settlement, the character of the country itself, and the presence of Indians, settlements were largely made in compact groups; this characteristic was accentuated by the demands of mining, the leading business occupation. The schools were, therefore, first organized in the towns and from them as a center extended to the outlying districts. They form the basis of the statistics from year to year. Each is organized into a single district with its own superintendent and one or more schools, with the taxing power and the authority to issue bonds. While having no history aside from the general history of public schools in the Territory and State, they have led in forward movements. In fact without them it would have been impossible for the history of the public schools to be written, for there would have been no history to write.

The city schools began with the lower grades and evolved their higher grades and their high schools by degrees. In December, 1882, Supt. M. M. Sherman reported that the advanced grade in the Tombstone schools "is prepared for high-school work which it is now doing in part." In the same report Supt. Sherman continued:

> Doubtless in the schools of Prescott, Phoenix, and Tucson, as well as in Tombstone, high-school work is being done, but some special encouragement should be given. * * * If in these places were created specially nurtured high schools, in connection with their common-school system, many students throughout the Territory that are now compelled to go abroad would find near at hand, under home influences, the higher education sought.

Indeed, it would appear that the high school was already known at that time in Tucson; for, remarking on these words of Supt. Sherman's report, Mr. McCrea said (pp. 108–9):

> While there was no provision in the law for secondary schools, various towns, among them Prescott, Phoenix, Tombstone, and Tucson, had tried to inaugurate high schools. While the school at Tucson was probably larger and more successful than the others, its uncertain foundation is shown by the fact that although such work was begun as early as 1880, but one class was ever graduated, and that not until 1893.

The Territorial report of 1881–82, however, speaks only of "advanced grades" in the Tucson schools, and gives nowhere any indication of the precise degree of advancement. No schools, classified as high schools, are reported in 1885–86, but there is reason to believe that all of the larger cities in the Territory were doing some work of high-school grade, although it was given in small doses and presumably generally counted as a part of the grade work.

In the case of Tucson it was found less necessary to develop the high-school grade because of the preparatory department of the newly organized university, which furnished all the high-school facilities of which the town was able to avail itself. In recent years, as the university becomes stronger and better organized, it has begun to close out its preparatory work, and this in turn is thrown back on the city or other high schools, from which special development may be expected in the near future. This is already becoming visible in some of the cities not only in special high-school work, but in general development and growth. Thus, in the case of Tucson itself, in 1887–88 there was a total of 528 pupils in the whole school; there were 3 buildings and 11 teachers; the property of the district, including library and apparatus, was valued at $68,425; the receipts from taxes and rents were $15,333.95, while the total expenditures were $11,106.14. In 1908–9 the enrollment had increased to 2,160, and the courses offered at that time were 4-year courses in Latin, English, mathematics, and history, with 2-year courses in Spanish and German and in commercial work. By 1909–10 there were 5 ward schools and a high school, and there were employed 53 teachers, 5 principals, and 3 supervisors. In that year the total enrollment was 2,313.

The enrollment in Tucson has steadily increased, necessitating more teachers and more buildings, until in 1915–16 it was 3,139, and there were 6 school buildings and 1 building rented for use as a colored school. There are now (1916–17) 8 principals, 4 supervisors, and 73 teachers, and the enrollment at the end of the sixth month was 3,446. During the summer of 1917 it was expected that a large $100,000 building would be erected in place of the Safford School, and four 2-room buildings and one 4-room building were to be put up, one of the 2-room buildings to be used as a colored school.

The growth of another selected city school system may be taken to represent the general growth and development of the whole.

The Globe School attained an attendance of 1,362 for the year 1914–15, of whom 1,091 were in the public and 271 in the high school. This system adopted the six-and-six plan at the beginning of 1914. Under this plan the six upper grades, from the seventh to the twelfth, inclusive, are organized as the high school and all work is done on the departmental system.

> The idea has met with favor on the part of everyone. The pupils of the two upper grammar grades are thus given an opportunity of enjoying high-school privileges. They have manual training, home economics, spelling, and music with their older companions, and enter into all the school activities with them. This arrangement gives every child a variety of teachers and a chance to progress by subjects rather than by grade. The plan is economical and has saved the district several hundred dollars, as the regular high-school teachers have been able to handle classes in the upper grades.

In 1915–16 the total sum expended for the first six grades was $37,663.41; in 1916–17, $47,174.96. The expenditures of the six upper grades, including the high school, were $26,930.76 and $25,364.84, respectively. In the high school the daily average attendance was 265.1 and 306.4; the cost per capita, $99,31 and $93.96. In the lower grades the average attendance was 859 and 980 and the per capita cost $44.55 and $44.66. The estimates for the high school for 1917–18 are $31,694.50; for the public school, $76,280.62; total for the public-school system, $107,975.16.

The public school proper is housed in six buildings, one of which provides a home for colored pupils. The high school has its own building, completed in 1904, and with modern equipment. It has been admitted to membership in the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, a privilege highly appreciated by the high schools of the State.

Because of the location of Globe in a mining section and the evident demand for such instruction, there were established in 1916–17 courses in geology and mineralogy. A collection of specimens for illustration and laboratory use has been begun.

The high school of Douglas offers a special course of study in domestic science and manual training. It printed an outline of the work required in 1914–15.

In Bisbee the board of education is at the present time working toward the six-and-six plan. This will throw the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades, now known as intermediate, along with the tenth, eleventh, and twelfth, into the high school. It is intended to build three junior high schools, and there are summer terms for backward and over-age pupils. In these matters Bisbee has been a leader in the State. On September 30, 1916, there were 2,583 pupils enrolled, being a gain of 243 over the corresponding period of 1915. It is planned to divide the school year into four terms of 12 weeks each, with one week's vacation between terms. When graduates of the Bisbee High School are employed as teachers, they have a primary supervisor to help them in planning and supervising their work. Salaries for grade teachers range from $75 to $100 for nine months.[1]

In the high school itself at Bisbee seven courses are offered—college preparatory, business, art, manual training, domestic science, general, and scientific. Twelve teachers are employed, and a night school is conducted, open to all, and with an enrollment of 267 (1916–17), many of whom are adults, including foreigners. The school has a library of over 2,000 volumes.[1]

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[1] Arizona Teacher, February, 1917, pp. 15–17.

In the earlier days there was no necessity for differentiating between the various normal parts of a city system. The grammar and high-school grades came up as the different parts of a single whole.

The beginning of differentiation of high schools from the city school of the grades is contained in the remark of Supt. Netherton in 1893–94. In his report for that year he says:

> There is always a lack of interest in high-school work in newly settled countries. Not only is there a lack of interest manifested, but strong opposition frequently arises to any effort to provide liberally for the maintenance of high schools. A great many do not seem to appreciate the fact that the high school is one of the rounds of the educational ladder that can not be dispensed with without serious danger to our educational interests. * * *
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> While I believe that the advantages of a high school are worth more to every citizen than he contributes to its support, owing to the physical character of Arizona there are many isolated and thinly populated sections where it would be impossible to establish high schools, and there is an appearance of injustice in taxing them to support institutions at so great a distance from them that they could not reap any direct advantage therefrom. A system of high schools can be provided for, however, against which these objections will not lie. Pass a law allowing any number of common-school districts to consolidate for the purpose of maintaining a high school, with the consent of a majority of the taxpayers of the districts proposing to unite. Then an annual levy can be made on the property in the high-school district for its maintenance. The school should be free for all residents of the high-school district, and a reasonable tuition fee should be charged for nonresidents. This is a plan that has been successfully tried in California and some of the Eastern States and is as efficient as it is fair. Students can live at home and reap all the advantages of a first-class education, thus saving to the people the expense of transportation to and living expenses at outside institutions.

The legislature responded to this suggestion, and the law relating to high schools, passed in 1895,[2] provided that any school district of 2,000 or more inhabitants, or any two or more adjoining districts with the necessary population, might unite and form a union high-school district for the purpose of maintaining a high school. They were to elect a board of education of five, who were to have all necessary powers, prescribe the course of study and admit applicants, but there was no provision for special funds other than those to be raised by an annual tax, the amount of which was to be estimated for by the county superintendent, and it was made the duty of the proper authorities to levy the tax asked on the single or union high-school district. It was thus entirely voluntary, and the whole support was to come out of local taxes. This was doubtless the greatest mistake. In the stage of development in which the Arizona schools then were, it is not reasonable to suppose that they would take kindly to district taxation without Territorial support. In fact, this had been their very first experience. The acts of 1867 and 1868 which had placed school support on the local district entirely were a flat failure—no schools were organized.

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[1] Arizona Teacher, February, 1917, pp. 15–17.

[2] Session Acts, 1895, ch. 32. Certain irregularities in the organization of these high-school districts and union high-school districts were cured by ch. 40, second special session, 1913.

Of this high-school law and its accomplishments Supt. Shewman said in 1899:

> We have had cause to regret the lack of interest in, and, we might say, the opposition to, the establishment of high schools in the Territory. Our law at present is liberal in its encouragement of the organization of high schools, and there are many localities where one would prove of inestimable value to the cause of education. * * * No school system is perfect without the high school. There is a missing link which no other school can supply, unless, indeed, our normal and university must supply the stepping stone by being burdened with a grammar department to supply the course furnished by the high school. There are now in this Territory some high schools existing under the old law and keeping up the course as prescribed under the old law, but there is but one that is recognized as having legal existence under the latest act of the legislative assembly, that at Phoenix. This school is in a most prosperous condition.

The first school organized under the law of 1895 was the Union High School at Phoenix, which had been in course of evolution since 1880. It had even graduated a few pupils and it now entered upon a real course of development. The next high school organized was that of Mesa, Maricopa County, which began work with the session of 1901–2. There were 164 "advanced-grade" pupils reported for 1901 and 151 the next year. In 1904 a third high school was organized at Prescott, in Yavapai County. There were reported in that year 278 pupils in the three high schools, with an average attendance of 218, and with 1,000 volumes in the libraries at Union and Mesa. The three had a total income of $14,188.44, with a total expenditure of $13,443.54, of which $7,182.07 went for the payment of salaries. The statistics to date available are neither continuous, complete, nor uniform; nor are the statistics given by High School Inspector Dr. Neil for 1915–16 as complete as they should be. In the absence of more complete reports the figures are given as they appear in the Territorial and State reports.

High-school statistics, 1895–1916.

Years.	High schools.	Counties with high schools.	Total enrollment.	Average daily attendance.	Length of term in months.	Teachers employed.	Books in library.	Valuation of school property.	Total receipts, including balances.	Total expenditures.
1895–96	[1] 8	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......
1896–97	1	1	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......
1897–98	1	1	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......
1898–99	1	1	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......
1899–1900	1	1	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......
1900–1901			[2] 164	......	......	......	......	......	......	......
1901–2	......	......	[2] 151	......	......	......	......	......	......	......
1902–3	2	1	[2] 200	......	......	......	......	......	......	......
1903–4	3	2	278	218	9.0	11	1,000	......	$14,188.44	$13,443.54
1904–5	5	3	332	259	8.1	15	1,570	$70,701	22,789.64	21,755.44
1905–6	5	3	342	261	8.8	17	1,640	71,436	21,751.60	21,480.14
1906–7	5	3	398	312	8.5	20	1,690	82,275	24,971.82	23,897.71
1907–8	8	5	709	543	9.0	32	2,750	111,975	46,587.43	39,233.22
1908–9	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......
1909–10	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......
1910–11	13	......	1,343	1,087	......	......	......	......	......	......
1911–12	16	......	1,528	1,201	......	......	......	......	......	......
1912–13	17	......	1,824	1,543	......	......	......	......	......	......
1913–14	18	......	2,267	1,773	......	......	......	......	......	......
1914–15	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......
1915–16	26	12	2,881	......	......	242	20,572	......	......	......

[1] This evidently refers to the high-school departments of existing city high schools.
[2] Number in "advanced grade," probably includes more than the schools organized under the law of 1895.

Brief surveys of the work of some individual high schools may be of interest and service in the absence of any complete general summary covering the whole field. All of them furnish many items of interest to an educator, and some are not without elements of romance.

The Florence High School is adopting some new styles in matters of school architecture. Instead of the conventional front, it has erected a structure in a radial design of the old Spanish mission type. Around a central building used for an assembly hall and school library four wings radiate northwest, northeast, southwest, southeast, with imposing colonnades to east and west. The ventilation and light are excellent, and the classrooms are removed from all the unpleasant but necessary noises of other departments. Three lines of work are offered, college preparatory, scientific, and commercial. A lyceum course is given under the auspices of the two school boards, and in the high school is supplied what the community may lack in the way of civic necessities.[1]

The Clarksdale High School, in the Verde-Jerome district in Yavapai County, is a new school, recently organized, with a new building presented by Senator Clark. "The whole work of the school has been planned to meet the direct needs of the smelter town," says one of the teachers, and this purpose has been so liberally interpreted as to make the school and the schoolhouse a very real and very active center of the social activity of the community.[2]

There is sometimes even something of romance in the history of these high schools which brings out in clear relief the devotion of these people to an educational ideal which they have made their own. This is brilliantly illustrated in the history of the high school of Yuma. The Territorial penitentiary was located at Yuma for some years before its removal to larger and more spacious quarters at Florence, leaving its old buildings at Yuma unoccupied. At about the time of this transfer the Yuma High School was being organized, but was without a local habitation (1909). Under the stress of circumstances the high school was conducted in the buildings within the high walls of the old penitentiary. Says the principal:

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[1] Arizona Teacher, January, 1917, p. 9; and February, 1917, p. 20.
[2] Arizona Teacher, February, 1917, p. 29.

> The class of 1914 is probably the only class in the United States who spent four years in a penitentiary and graduated at the same, receiving their diplomas. From this it seems that Yuma has carried prison reform even beyond the fondest hopes of his excellency, Gov. Hunt.

And one of the local poets has sung:

> Queer use to make of this old "pen,"
>   Old dungeoned haunt of hate and fear;
> But when all like this can be used like this,
>   The millenium will then be here.

The school moved into its new building, costing $75,000, in 1914. It employs seven teachers and offers courses in Latin, Spanish, French, English, and the sciences, including agriculture and dairy farming, domestic science and domestic art, commercial subjects, history, music, art, and physical culture.

In 1910 the Territorial board of education adopted the following uniform courses of study for the high schools: English, 4 units; mathematics—algebra, 1½ units; geometry, 1 unit; history, 2 units; ancient and modern languages, 2 units; science, 2 units; electives, 3½ units.

A unit was defined as consisting of five periods of 45 minutes each per week for 36 weeks. This course was to become effective September, 1910.[1] In that year commercial courses were reported in Phoenix, Prescott, Jerome, Yuma, Tucson, Tombstone, Globe, and Tempe. The schools of Bisbee and Mesa also had some courses in commercial subjects.

The last report on high schools as a whole is that by Dr. Neil, high-school inspector, for the year 1915–16. It covers 26 schools located in 13 of the 14 counties of the State, Apache County alone being unrepresented. This report includes both classes of high schools, known in other States as city and country high schools. That these classes are less clearly differentiated in Arizona than in the other States is due to the character of the settlements. As water is the chief desideratum in Arizona, settlements must of necessity be within the bounds or reach of running water, hence the tendency to settlement in village communities is inevitable. Of the Arizona high schools, three are in villages with about 1,000 inhabitants, 12 are in communities with 2,500 inhabitants or less (counted as rural communities in the census), and 14 are in towns of over 2,500.

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[1] Arizona Journal of Education, April, 1910, pp. 22, 38.

Of the list of buildings reported there yet remains one of wood—that at Tombstone erected in 1885. The next oldest is the one at Morenci, built in 1905. The cost has varied from $260,000 for the house at Phoenix, built in 1911, down to $8,000 for that at Willcox, built the same year. The total cost of 22 buildings is given as $1,350,000, or an average of about $60,000 each. In a majority of cases the houses seem well supplied with rooms, some of them having 24, 25, 30, and that at Phoenix 48 rooms. The heating is in most cases modern—either steam or hot air. Most schools are supplied with some laboratory facilities. Fifteen report such facilities in biology, valued at $5,570; 24 report laboratories for physics, valued at $22,650; 22 in chemistry, worth $13,150; 7 in agriculture, worth $1,800; 22 report manual training equipment, worth $47,900; 21 domestic science, worth $26,050; 23 commercial equipment, worth $19,700. The term varied between 36 and 40 weeks, with an average of a fraction over 37. Of the 22 buildings reported, 1 was created in 1908, 4 in 1909, 2 in 1911, 3 in 1912, 2 in 1913, 3 in 1914, 2 in 1915, and 3 in 1916, with two others under construction. These dates show clearly that the modern school idea has taken a firm hold on the Arizona mind; and the material used—brick, brick and concrete, or stone in all structures except the oldest—shows that they are planned for a long future. About half of these schools were fortunately abundantly supplied with grounds and 13 had trees.

A detailed study of the teaching force of the Arizona High Schools was undertaken in the spring of 1916 and revealed as it progressed some interesting facts. In this study the faculties of 24 high schools were considered. Of the 208 high-school teachers reported, 141 were holders of bachelors' degrees, including graduates of standard colleges and universities, but excluding normal schools and commercial colleges. This number of college graduates gives a higher proportion than is found in some of the older States, notwithstanding the urgings in this direction of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools; 28 of these teachers held advanced degrees, like A.M. and Ph.D.; 56 had pursued postgraduate studies; 91 had been trained in or graduated from normal schools, 11 in business colleges, and one in a technical school. Nearly half of these teachers were then following courses at summer schools and 84 per cent came into Arizona from without the State, mainly from Illinois and Kansas. The cosmopolitan character of their education is shown by the 153 educational institutions which they represent; about 85 per cent of these teachers got their preliminary experience in other

States which seems to indicate that school officials in Arizona are unwilling to assist in "breaking in" young teachers, and as a consequence young people who are trained for teaching are driven out of it for the beginnings of their actual teaching experience.[1]

According to the report of Dr. Neil for 1915–16, there were then 242 high-school teachers at work in the State, of whom 140 were college graduates and 46 normal graduates; 23 libraries contained 20,572 volumes. There were 1,170 first-year pupils; 542, second-year; 786 third-year; 383 fourth-year, of whom 356 graduated. Of these, 111 entered college and 70 entered a normal school. The salaries of teachers varied from $55 per month, the smallest at Yuma, to $225 the largest at Phoenix. The cost per capita per pupil varied between $42.35 at Winslow and $200 at Douglas. The average cost for 22 schools was $123.65 per pupil.

The following table, made up from reports furnished to this office shows the condition of the high schools along certain lines not given in detail in Dr. Neil's report.

Statistics of Arizona high schools, 1915–16.

Schools.	Years in course.	Days in session.	Teachers.	Pupils.	Volumes in library.	Value of library.	Total value, school property.	Total income.	Expended for sites, buildings, etc.	Courses given other than academic.
Benson [1]	4	170	6	55	300	....	$55,000	....	....	4
Bisbee	4	180	14	231	1,700	$2,000	100,000	....	....	4
Clarkdale	4	200	3	[2] 23	2,000	3,000	21,000	....	....	2
Clifton	4	168	8	70	880	750	40,000	....	....	4
Douglas	4	169	14	238	900	1,200	61,000	$22,000	$8,000	4
Duncan [1]	4	170	4	36	50	75	50,800	....	....	....
Florence Union [1]	4	172	8	56	600	800	110,000	....	....	3
Glendale	4	173	5	107	600	350	52,000	....	....	4
Globe [1]	4	180	12	108	550	800	100,000	....	4,738	....
Kingman	4	180	2	27	150	275	300	....	....	....
Mesa Union	4	169	13	203	1,067	600	53,000	20,000	....	2
Miami Union	4	175	3	52	500	600	....	....	....	1
Morenci	4	162	2	20	600	1,000	2,000	....	....	1
Nogales	4	172	4	51	625	800	80,500	....	51,456	3
Phoenix Union	4	165	37	[3] 910	900	1,000	265,000	70,449	....	4
Prescott	4	184	8	[3] 146	1,090	1,368	123,702	....	20,745	3
Safford [1]	4	172	6	46	471	500	55,000	6,850	55,000	....
Tempe Union	4	170	8	93	1,200	1,200	50,000	....	....	1
Tombstone	4	170	2	26	150	200	6,500	2,500	....	2
Tucson	4	165	12	283	900	1,200	145,000	18,040	1,000	3
Willcox	4	171	5	68	220	250	11,900	7,500	1,750	3
Winslow	4	180	12	112	2,762	3,000	51,000	13,390	....	4

[1] Statistics for 1916–17. [2] Includes 1 colored pupil. [3] Includes 8 colored pupils.

VI. THE NORMAL SCHOOLS.

Normal-school training in Arizona dates from 1885. An act passed on March 12, 1885, appropriated $5,000 for the erection of suitable buildings and $3,500 for support of the school for the two years 1885 and 1886. The Territory furnished for a site 20 acres of land, with water privileges, within half a mile of Tempe, Maricopa County, and 9 miles from Phoenix. Contracts were let for the building at $6,497 to the lowest responsible bidder, and the completed building was delivered January 11, 1886. Then the trouble began. The governor refused to countersign any warrant for more than $5,000; a test case was made and argued before the chief justice, but no decision was made at the time; the matter seems to have been dropped, and the balance due was presumably paid later out of the regular income of the institution from the tax of 2½ cents on the hundred given by the same assembly for the erection of buildings and the support of the institution.[1]

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[1] Arizona Teacher, November, 1916, pp. 16–18.

The first building was 60 by 70 feet, and was entirely surrounded by verandas 10 feet wide; four rooms 30 feet square were then provided. The school was opened February 8, 1886, and placed under the administration of Prof. H. Bradford Farmer. In that year a four months' term was provided, and there were 33 pupils in attendance. Tuition was free to those who intended to teach and to those nominated by a member of the legislature; other persons were charged $4 per month. The course of study began with elementary work, including reading, writing, geography, and arithmetic, history of United States, and grammar for the first year, and for the second, algebra, natural philosophy, physiology, method, essays, select readings, and declamations. There was an advanced course of three years which covered these subjects and also Latin, analysis, Constitution of the United States, Cæsar, physiology, methods, Cicero, general history, geometry, rhetoric, Virgil, English literature, political economy, history and philosophy of education, essays, etc. On the completion of either of these courses a corresponding diploma was given, entitling the holder to teach in the public schools of the Territory.

It will be noticed that there was little in either of these courses which was professional in character; that the courses differed but little from regular high-school courses; that the first service of this school was evidently to furnish high-school work to such as were advanced enough and financially able to take it, in this way supplying in part the almost total lack of secondary work then in the Territory, for at that date the development of the city high schools had just begun and that of the union high schools was still a long way off.[2]

For the next 15 years the Tempe Normal School had a somewhat tempestuous career. Always well supported by the Territory in matters financial, it was nevertheless the football of politics and its usefulness was for this reason diminished. Notwithstanding these more or less recurring troubles, the school has constantly grown, has widened and extended its courses, and has now developed into an institution of great merit. This growth is shown by the story of development as told from year to year in the reports of the superintendent and in other sources. The principals during the first 15 years were H. B. Farmer, 1885–1888; Robert L. Long, ex-superintendent of public instruction, 1888–1890; D. A. Reed, 1890, and Edgar L. Storment to 1895; Dr. James McNaughton, 1895–1900; Joseph Warren Smith, 1900–1, when the present principal, Dr. A. J. Matthews, came into office. The first years were marked as a period of slow, steady growth, during which the institution gained definite recognition as a factor in the development of Arizona.[1]

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[1] This provision was carried over into the code of 1887.

[2] See superintendent's report for 1885–86.

In 1889–90 when the school was just fairly getting on its feet its object was declared to be—

> that the school shall furnish an opportunity for an education at home beyond that possible in the grammar school, and the course of study has been so arranged that the pupil upon completing the grammar-school course shall be fitted for entrance * * *. The past year has marked a great increase in the efficiency and popularity of the school, there being now in attendance 40 scholars, most of whom are fitting themselves for the vocation of teacher. The greatest need under which the school now labors is some provision for dormitories.

It was also pointed out at this time, 1889–90, that the 2½ cents annual levy given to the normal school was not needed, since more than enough money for its support was reapportioned yearly to the counties out of the school fund.

In 1893, at the end of eight years, it was reported that 295 students had been matriculated and 35 graduated, 15 of whom had become teachers in the Territory. In 1895, or 10 years after organization, the annual matriculation had reached nearly 100, the graduating class numbered 12, and the faculty had increased to 5. The record of matriculation for the preceding five years, including both males and females, was as follows: 1890–91, 54; 1891–92, 76; 1892–93, 87; 1893–94, 91; 1894–95, 94.

The seventeenth assembly (that for 1895) levied a tax of two-fifths of a mill on each dollar of assessed valuation (4 cents on the hundred) to be used in the erection and better maintenance of a normal-school building, which was finished in 1897 at a cost when completed of about $75,000. In purpose the institution sought to keep up with the development of the Territory and meet the needs of students, and while progress was being made on these lines it was said in 1895–96 that the public schools were as yet in such a condition that both the normal school and the university were still compelled to do grammar grade work.[2]

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[1] See Supt. Long's report for 1906–1908, p. 69.

[2] Superintendent's report, 1895–96, p. 21.

For the year 1898–99 it was reported that 90 normal graduates were employed in the public schools, and in 1899–1900 the number was 85.

The legislature of 1899 granted an annual tax of 1½ cents on the hundred for the normal-school fund and appropriated $3,500 to pay the accumulated indebtedness. In its report on the workings of the institution[1] the visiting committee of the trustees for that year considered the development of the school as "worthy of commendation" and then fell into a discvussion of the whole subject, which showed the trend of the school itself and of the times:

> We desire to call particular attention to the course of study and to most strongly commend the efforts of the trustees in giving a thorough English course. Too many of the young people of America graduate from high schools and colleges with a mere smattering of a practical education. There is an intense desire on the part of such institutions to rush students into Latin, Greek, French, German, higher mathematics, mental and moral science, etc., before they have acquired proficiency in spelling, grammar, rhetoric, geography, the history of our country and our flag, physiology, and those other branches which are usually called "common." It is evident to those who are victims of such mistakes that the normal school at Tempe insists upon a thorough English education before anything else is considered. If in time it is demonstrated that our young men and women come from the public schools very proficient in the common branches, then will be ample time to extend the course to meet their needs. At present the course as outlined is, in our opinion, that which our students need to fit them as teachers, as well as to make them most useful as men and women in any walk in life. We believe that the board has acted wisely in adopting the plan of giving three years to academic work and one year to those branches which belong purely to the professional teacher. The students who find that they are not fitted for teaching, or who desire to adopt some other life course, will have lost no time in the study of methods of teaching, etc. On the other hand, the student who desires to teach is thereby better equipped for the study of purely professional branches in his final year.

By this arrangement the Territory succeeded to an extent in supplying the need of high schools. Those who could afford and had the disposition went to the normal school at Tempe or to the university at Tucson for their academic and high-school courses. In this way the high-school facilities of the Territory were greatly enlarged.

In 1899 a second normal school, located at Flagstaff on the Santa Fe Pacific Railroad and known as the Northern Normal School of Arizona, was organized. The genesis of this institution is interesting. Its beginnings go back to an act passed in 1893 looking to the creation of a school for delinquent boys.

In that year such a school was actually provided by law[2] and was to be formally known as the Reform School for juvenile offenders. A building for this purpose located at Flagstaff was commenced and at least $33,265 spent on the same. It was still unfinished in 1897, when it was given a special tax of 3 cents on the hundred for a building fund. But by this time the people of Flagstaff had come to the conclusion that a reform institution in their midst would be a drawback to their community; so with this idea in mind they set out to persuade the Territorial authorities that it would be cheaper to keep such incorrigible bodys in the proper institutions in California rather than at home. They won their point. Then it became necessary to find use for the unfinished building, and it was determined to make it a branch insane asylum. This was done by chapter 25, acts of 1897, but the people of Flagstaff disliked this plan also, and its use was again changed.

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[1] In superintendent's report, 1899–1900, pp. 59–61.

[2] Laws of Arizona, 1893, ch. 81.

Finally, it was suggested that the building would serve a good purpose as a normal school for the northern half of the Territory, which was at a distance from and inconvenient to the normal school at Tempe. This suggestion was accepted; the act for the asylum passed in 1897 was repealed, and the effort was now begun to develop this new school into an institution of the same grade in all respects as the older one at Tempe, with its diplomas of the same force and effect. Teaching began in 1899, and the committee which visited the school in June, 1900, reported it as in "most excellent condition" and recommended that since there were no high schools in northern Arizona an "academic course" should be added to the more technical and professional work, for "this seems only justice to the boys and girls of northern Arizona." It was not considered wise, however, to introduce manual training into the schools and colleges of the Territory at that time. From the organization and formal opening of the Northern Arizona Normal School at Flagstaff in 1899, the history of the institution and of the Tempe Normal must be told in connection with each other.

The report of the board of visitors on these schools for 1906 is highly satisfactory. The Tempe school was then 20 years of age; it had fortunately passed through most of the period of confusion and political upheaval. It had acquired in 1901 the principal whom it has ever since retained, and in 1906 had reached an enrollment of 243 in the normal school and 177 in the training school, to which an eighth grade was then being added.[1] The legislature of 1905 had given Tempe a 5½ cent building fund, producing $45,000, of which $44,274.01 was expended for permanent improvements during the year. The growth of the institution had been "rapid and constant," and while in former years there had been a shortage of books, the library was now said to occupy "a large part of the study room," and was reported to the United States Bureau of Education in 1909 as containing 5,000 volumes and 500 pamphlets. It was estimated that if the then rate of 9 cents on the hundred for maintenance was continued it would be sufficient for maintenance without special assessments for improvements.

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[1] The training departments of the normal schools were made a part of the public school system by ch. 87, acts of 1909.

In 1907–8 the registration had reached a total of 272 in the normal school and 191 in the training school. There were then 19 in the faculty and the class of 1909 was expected to number 50 or over. Two general courses leading to graduation were maintained—a five-year course for graduates of the grammar schools and a two-year course for graduates of a four-year high-school course. The former course included both academic and professional work, the latter in the main professional work only. It was evident that the normal schools were still needed to supply the lack of high schools. This is seen clearly in the course offered: English, mathematics, science, history and sciences, Latin, Spanish, professional instruction and practice teaching, commercial, drawing, vocal music, manual training, military drill, and physical culture. Students might use this work as a basis of admission to college on the same terms as high-school graduates. The normal-school diploma granted at completion of the course was equivalent to a life diploma in Arizona and was accredited in California and some other States as equivalent to a diploma from their own State normal schools.

Up to the time of this report more than $300,000 had been invested in this institution.

Since 1908 the school has continued its progressive development. In 1914–15 besides the two courses already mentioned—the two-year professional course for graduates of high schools and the five-year general and professional course for graduates of the grammar schools—there had been added two others—a four years' academic course for graduates of the four-year high-school course who do not expect to teach, and a training school course which embraces all grades of common-school work, from the kindergarten to the eighth grade, inclusive. Special courses to prepare teachers to meet the requirements in particular lines are also given, and since the completion of a $90,000 building erected for that purpose special attention is given to vocational training.[1] The faculty then numbered 23, but it was pointed out that an increase was necessary if the school was to meet the need of the growing State. The matriculation for 1916–17 was 434 in the normal school and 272 in the training school; the faculty had increased to 32 members; its income was about $95,000, making the average cost per pupil in the normal classes $177.42. The total property valuation of the plant was then $567,000, and it was determined to ask the next legislature for $110,000 per year.

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[1] Made possible under ch. 80, second special session, laws of 1913. See also code of 1913, sec. 2797.

From Flagstaff it was reported in 1905–6 that that school was still in need of an academic department, "so that such students as desire may be fitted for our Territorial university instead of having to go out of the Territory to secure the necessary instruction." The enrollment during these years had remained low: 33 in 1899–1900; 40 in 1900–1901; 45 in 1902–3 and 1903–4; 59 in 1904–5; and 60 in 1905–6. The cost the first year (1899–1900) was $5,825.57; in 1905–6, $13,978.64. The total cost for the seven years of the school is given as $71,152.05; the number of teachers was at first 2; it rose the second year to 4, and the fifth year to 6, where it remained. There had been in all 42 graduates, or an average of 7 for the six graduating years. It was reported in 1907–8 that that year had been the "most prosperous" of its existence. Its enrollment reached 94, with 64 in the training school, which offered 7 grades of work. There were 12 graduates in 1908, and it had up to that time 49 graduates, of whom 43 had taught in the Territory. Two dormitories had been recently built at a cost of $50,000, but there was still crying need for liberal appropriations in the near future. A summer term was first offered in 1907. It has since become a permanent part of the school, having 225 pupils in 1916. The regular matriculation began to gain in 1911–12 when it passed the hundred mark and reached 137; in 1916–17 there were 334, and the faculty then numbered 21, but it was reported that the school was still cramped for room in which to work.

The general administration of these schools is under the direction of two distinct but similar boards of three members each; the superintendent of public instruction is a member of each board. The other members of the Tempe Board are two citizens selected from that section by the governor, while those controlling the Flagstaff School come in the same way from that section.

In general the effort was at first made to support the institutions by special taxes laid for their particular benefit, and there has been a tendency toward standardizing the appropriations. The Tempe School was granted in 1885 a tax of 2½ cents on the hundred; this was apparently unchanged until 1893–94, when it was given two-fifths of 1 mill on the dollar, or 4 cents on the hundred of assessed valuation apparently in place of the earlier grant. This was continued in 1895 and 1896; in 1897 and 1898 it was 3 cents; in 1899 and 1900, 1¼ cents; in 1903 and 1904, 2½ cents, with a second tax of 4 cents to serve as a basis for a building fund; in 1905 and 1906 it received in all 5½ cents. In each case the auditor was instructed to anticipate the incoming revenue.

The Flagstaff normal school was treated in the same general way, being given, in 1903 and 1904, 3 cents on the hundred for support and 1 cent for building; while in 1905 and 1906 it was given 1½ cents for building. The method of apportioning funds appears to have been changed about 1909, for in that year the Tempe school was given $80,000 for support for two years without any indication of the rate and the Flagstaff School $35,000.

In 1909 it was provided by law[1] that the course of study leading to graduation from the two schools should be prescribed by the territorial board of education and after June 30, 1909, be uniform. The two institutions were then neither equal in strength nor in resources, but while the younger school is approximating such a position and while the faculties of the two are not so far apart in numbers, the Tempe School will still be able to offer superior advantages as long as its resources are substantially twice as great. This difference seems not to have been fully realized as yet by the legislative body; for the funds granted the two for the two-year period ending June 30, 1917, were, for Tempe, $180,000 for support and $29,000 for buildings and repairs; to Flagstaff, $80,000 for support and $97,043 for buildings. Only an equality of resources and equipment can make possible an equality in the results attained.

The annual expenditures of the two schools for maintenance and equipment is, according to the reports of the State auditor as follows:

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[1] Sess. Laws of Arizona, 1909, ch. 58.

Expenses of normal schools, 1885–1917.

Year ending June 30.	Normal school at Tempe, maintenance.	Normal school at Flagstaff, maintenance.	Tempe improvements, buildings, etc.	Flagstaff improvements, buildings, etc.
1885–86	$5,640.10	....	....	....
1889–90	2,939.69	....	....	....
1892	3,116.65	....	....	....
1893	....	....	....	....
1894	17,324.72	....	....	....
1895	....	....	....	....
1896	....	....	....	....
1897	34,659.33	....	....	....
1898	10,066.25	....	....	....
1899	10,822.51	$993.23	....	....
1900	10,202.39	14,844.34	....	....
1901	15,275.60	7,405.54	....	....
1902	16,675.32	8,527.04	....	....
1903	22,263.10	9,942.69	$7,287.40	$13,191.22
1904	29,373.51	18,942.15	20,687.01	290.87
1905	....	....	....	....
1906	37,389.29	13,978.64	44,274.01	9,087.31
1907	35,039.66	11,748.35	2,844.20	4,590.62
1908	53,912.22	17,314.72	27,705.97	15,686.60
1909	....	....	....	....
1910	....	....	....	....
1911	39,160.61	20,022.84	9,009.32	7,367.06
1912	49,950.15	22,086.33	7,299.61	6,097.62
1913	46,809.74	31,283.05	19,595.52	19,830.05
1914	78,970.04	44,116.69	24,053.76	43,695.40
1915	76,605.88	51,702.23	105,358.81	49,445.73
1916	95,386.05	53,721.37	15,234.85	73,658.25
1917	[1] 90,000.00	[1] 40,000.00	[1] 14,500.00	[1] 48,521.50

[1] Represents one-half the legislative appropriations for the two years 1916 and 1917.

Chapter IX.

THE SCHOOL LANDS.

The Arizona State land commission, created by an act of the legislature approved May 20, 1912,[1] had its duties outlined by the act as follows:

To ascertain the character and value of the various bodies of land constituting the public land within the State and to recommend to the governor such as might be desirable for selection in satisfaction of the Federal grants to the State.

To personally examine and classify the school and other lands of the State with a view to aiding the legislature in the determination of a State land policy.

To determine the character and value of improvements on school and university lands held under lease prior to the admission of the State.

To grant permits for the continued occupancy of school and university lands held under lease before statehood.

The amendments to this law, passed April 11 and May 16 and 17, 1913,[2] authorized the commission to care for, sell, or otherwise administer the timber and timber products upon the public lands of the State; to lease any lands not already leased; to take charge of all lands owned by the State except such as are under the specific use and control of State institutions; to prosecute and defend actions, prevent trespass, grant rights of way, and relinquish school lands within national forests settled upon prior to statehood; and to adjust the rights of lessees owning improvements on school or university lands and sell or lease the lands secured under the million-acre grant for the payment of certain county bonds and to select, manage, and dispose of desert lands to be reclaimed under the act of Congress of August 18, 1894, and the acts supplementary thereto known as the Carey land acts.

It follows, therefore, that the administration of the public lands intended for educational purposes was a part of but by no means all of the duties devolving on the commission. This study deals only with the lands devoted to education.

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[1] Revised Statutes, 1913, ch. 1, title 48.

[2] Ibid., ch. 3, title 48; ch. 4, title 43; chs. 1 and 2, title 43.

These lands may be divided into two clearly defined groups: I. The public-school lands of which sections 16 and 36 were reserved for the use of schools when the Territory was organized (Feb. 24, 1863) and to which sections 2 and 32 were added at the admission of the Territory as a State. The total area of the four sections in each township thus granted for the use of schools is 8,103,680 acres, of which 3,134,555.20 acres were still unsurveyed December 1, 1914, and 1,397,357.59 acres were included in the national forests.

II. The institutional lands granted by Congress at the admission of the State into the Union, amounting to 2,350,000 acres.

I. THE PUBLIC-SCHOOL LANDS.

While sections 16 and 36 were reserved in the act of February 24, 1863, for the use of the public schools, no authority to lease, sell, or administer these lands was given the Territorial authorities until the act of April 7, 1896. The correspondence of the governors with the Secretary of the Interior is full of arguments showing the importance and the necessity of granting such authority. Gov. Safford pointed out that squatters were trespassing on and taking up school lands and asked authority to sell or at any rate to lease. His example and requests were followed in turn by practically every succeeding governor with substantially the same reasons, and all were backed up from time to time by the legislature in passing memorials which showed the utmost anxiety to get their hands on this endowment provided for the coming children of the State. In 1883 and 1884, Gov. Tritle urged that the rights of control conceded to the States might well be granted to the Territories and argued truthfully that being deprived of this source of income meant that the citizens must support their schools by direct taxation, and that this was burdensome. He also urged that provision should be made for the selection of other lands to take the place of the worthless desert that covered many parts of the Territory. He renewed these recommendations in 1884 and 1885.[1] Under the administration of Gov. Zulick permission to sell the school lands was again asked.[2] Gov. Wolfley urged that settlers were then farming the school lands and paying no revenue and that the needs of the Territory would never be greater. Gov. Hughes estimated in 1895 that the funds from the school lands, if leased, would be from $75,000 to $100,000 annually, and so the story goes on to the end of the chapter. The Territory very much wished to get control of its school lands, but in this matter the Congress was fortunately adamant. A deaf ear was turned to all their proposals, and not until the act of April 7, 1896, was the authority given the Territory to even lease the lands.

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[1] Report of Governor of Arizona to the Secretary of the Interior for 1883, p. 13; 1884, p. 11; and 1885, p. 17.

[2] See Report of Governor of Arizona to Secretary of the Interior for 1887, p. 8.

(a) THE SALT RIVER SCHOOL LANDS.

These lands demand particular consideration because they are the oldest and best known of the school lands and because since the building of the Roosevelt dam—

> it is evident that the inclusion of these lands in the Salt River Valley project, their admission to contractual rights in the stored waters of the Roosevelt Dam, while they remain in State ownership, is viewed with disfavor by the United States Government.

In the Salt River Valley reclamation project there are 13,003.59 acres of school land which at the date of statehood were held under lease by 202 lessees. This is the most valuable body of land, of similar area, in the State, and its careful and businesslike administration is of immense importance to the common-school fund. Its appraised value was $1,257,426.70, with appraised improvements amounting to $379,343.23. To these figures must be added a body of 1,496 acres of school lands under the Tempe Canal and independent of the Salt River project. This land is worth $146,975 and the improvements $42,363.65, making for the two tracts, together with the improvements, a total of $1,826,108.58, without considering water appropriations and privileges appurtenant to the land.

The occupation of this land by squatters and others dates back in some cases to 1870. As early as 1867 work was begun on some of the ditches, or canals, used in its irrigation. This work was continued and finally came to embrace the Salt, Maricopa, Grand, and Arizona Canals on the north, and the Tempe, Mesa, Utah, High Land, and Consolidated Canals on the south of the river, all of which are now included in the Salt River Valley project. It is estimated that when Congress gave the power of leasing school lands to the Territory in 1896, not less than 4,440 acres on the north side of the Gila and 2,820 acres on the south side were "under cultivation by squatters, who for varying periods had occupied the lands without warrant whatsoever and had enjoyed the fruits thereof without the payment of either rental or taxes."

It thus became necessary that the Territory pass some enactment by which the interests and rights of the schools and of the squatters might be preserved.

The act of April 7, 1896,[1] which finally gave the control of leases to the Territory, provided that the governor, the secretary of state, and the superintendent of public instruction, should, pending the enactment of laws and regulations, act as a board to lease the lands under rules and regulations proposed by the Secretary of the Interior, but there is no indication that they exercised their prerogative in this matter. The Territorial legislature, however, passed an act on March 18, 1897, which provided for the leasing of the school lands. The squatters who had previously occupied them were given a preferred right. In case they failed or refused to lease, and others wished to do so, their improvements were to be appraised in a manner provided by law and paid for by the new lessee. Improvements were described as being—

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[1] See U. S. Stat. L., vol. 29, p. 90.

> anything permanent in character, the result of labor or capital expended on such land in its reclamation or development, and the appropriation of water thereon, which has enhanced the value of the same beyond what said land would be worth had it been permitted to remain in its original state.

An addendum to this law enacted since provides that—

> anyone making permanent improvements after leasing shall be allowed compensation therefor at the expiration of their lease, or anyone having to surrender their land before the expiration of their lease shall be entitled to all the benefits of this section.[1]

These statutes remained the law until statehood, when the first legislature, recognizing the necessity of an "equitable adjustment of the reciprocal rights of the lessee residing on any of said land, and of the State" authorized and directed the issuing of permits for the further occupancy of the school lands held under Territorial lease pending final adjustment. After objection and opposition on the part of some lessees, and up to December 1, 1914, the date of the first report of the State land commission, 133 lessees had complied with the law, while 75 had not.

In the meantime the question of water rights had long since become an exceedingly important one. In early days water was largely a question of individual initiative. Then came the incorporation of the Salt River Valley Canal Co., which took over individual rights and duties and administered matters pertaining to the water supply; in course of time more land was brought under cultivation while the amount of water remained stationary, and as a result the shares of the company which had a par value of $500 attained a market price of $5,000 or $6,000 or even more. But this abnormal condition could not last; dissensions multiplied; suits "for the purpose of establishing the priority of right to the flow of the river, as appurtenant to the land upon which originally appropriated and untransferable," were instituted and culminated in 1910 in what is known as the "Kent decree." By this decree—

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[1] The last section of this supplementary act was apparently never invoked.

the order of priority in which each tract of land in Salt River Valley that had been regularly cultivated down to 1905, or to within five years of that time, was entitled to receive the waters of the Salt River, was determined and established.

This decree is of great significance, for it follows—

that lands which could claim the beneficial use of water upon them at a date not later than 1880, and were and are entitled to their proportionate share of the normal flow of the river up to the amount deemed by the Kent decree to be necessary for their proper irrigation, may be considered as having valuable water rights—rights under which they are reasonably assured of ample water during the entire season for the growing of practically any crop. But the lands upon which the application of water appears to have been of a later date must be content with water at such times or during such periods only as the records show the river to have furnished more than was necessary for the user of prior appropriations. They can only hope to be cultivated intermittently, during the season of high normal flow, and their cultivation likely must be confined to crops requiring the least amount of water. Such a right, it is plain, is of comparatively small value.

In the meantime the effort to cultivate more land and the constant demand for the development of more water had brought the United States into the work of permanent reclamation; for washouts came. droughts followed, fields went to waste, and highly improved farms reverted to their desert state until finally the United States Government was petitioned to intervene and save the valley through the national reclamation law enacted in 1903. The United States took over the larger part of the system of canals; old rights were then swept away or surrendered, and all that remained was the priority of right, later legally established by the "Kent decree," accruing and attaching to the land itself and not to any individual, either owner or lessee, to the normal flow of Salt River. These rights, to the extent only that they were dependent upon the river's normal flow, were and are recognized by the United States Reclamation Service, which controls not only the normal flow of the river, but the stored waters of the Roosevelt reservoir. Thus the old monetary values ceased to exist after the advent of the Reclamation Service. This service has indeed proposed that the school lands be denied the right to contract for the stored waters of the Roosevelt reservoir, while individuals have thought that the clause in the reclamation act which provides that "no right to the use of water for land in private ownership shall be sold for a tract exceeding 160 acres to any one landowner," would exclude the school lands altogether, but this view was rejected in the interpretation of the Secretary of the Interior, and the final recommendation in the matter, as reported in 1909 by the Reclamation Commission, was that school lands, both cultivated and uncultivated, were not then to be considered a part of the project at that time, but might be considered as a new unit dependent upon the development of additional water supply for such lands. As the prospect was for an abundant supply of water from Roosevelt reservoir, it was thought that there would be at least temporarily enough water, but if this was to be permanent it would depend on the development of an additional water supply. But this situation in no case affected the rights which the lands might possess under the Kent decree. The opinion of the commission was that authority should be given for the sale of the lands and that the proceeds should be placed in an inviolable permanent fund, for in their present status the lands are being sadly neglected.

(*b*) AMOUNT AND DISTRIBUTION OF SCHOOL LANDS.

According to the first report of the Arizona land commission in 1914, the 8,103,680 acres included in sections 2, 16, 32, and 36 which have been devoted to the public schools, are divided as follows:

	Acres.
In national forests	1,397,357.59
In Indian reservations	1,746,860.01
In other reservations	76,164.11
Unsurveyed and unreserved	3,134,555.20
Appropriated by United States entry, subject to indemnity	168,707.62
In place, not leased	1,184,985.52
In place, under lease or permit	395,049.95
Total	8,103,680.00

When the 1,580,035.46 acres in place and leased or not leased are classified from the standpoint of agricultural, woodland, or grazing usefulness, it was found that there were 303,333.62 acres susceptible of some form of agricultural development; 143,189.48 acres had woodland value; and 1,549,980.02 acres had grazing value. It was estimated that these 1,580,035.46 acres were worth $6,266,505.79 and the improvements upon them (structures, windmills, tanks, ditches, and canals, clearing and leveling, fencing, perennial crops, and water rights) were worth an additional $848,976.47, making a total of $7,115,482.26. Prior to statehood there were 264,993.34 acres of school lands leased under 806 leases, and at the rates then charged these leases brought $16,397.39 per year. With statehood the rental values were revived and standardized at prices ranging from $20 per section up for grazing lands. For the three years beginning March 16, 1912, and ending with March 15, 1915, the earnings were: 1912–13, $22,465.36; 1913–14, $32,148.48; 1914–15, $31,792.66; 1915–16, $35,852.14; 1916 (Jan. 1–July 1), $40,349.12. For the whole period between February 14, 1912, and March 15, 1915, the total earnings were $88,367.17, of which there had been paid in $43,547.51, and there was then due $44,819.66.

Receipts derived from the lease of school lands in earlier years were:

1899 (6 months ending June 30)	$897.73
1899–1900	3,936.04
1900–1901	4,121.71
1901–2	3,576.66
1902 (6 months, July to December)	1,726.27

The land commission also gives the cash receipts and the earnings not received from the school lands under the Salt River project for the year ending March 15, 1915, as $13,241.10, of which $1,422.39 had been received and $11,818.71 had not. In the same way and for the same time the lands under the Tempe canal had earned $1,999.97, of which $594 had been received and $1,405.97 was still due.

(c) NATIONAL FOREST LANDS.

As already pointed out, of the public school lands as much as 1,397,357.59 acres lie within the boundaries of the national forests. Under the enabling act the title to these lands is not vested in the State, but they are administered as a part of the national forest to which they belong, and such part of the gross income of the forest is paid the State for the common-school fund as the school land included within the forest bears to the whole of the forest. It is estimated that the part of the national forests belonging to the State makes up about one-ninth of the whole national forest area in the State and that Federal administration is more successful than it could be in State hands.

At the time of the admission of Arizona there were 1,126 leases of surveyed and unsurveyed State school lands in the national forests, covering 456,073.94 acres, at a rental of $20,048.74. Of these leases there were canceled 320, covering 191,080.60 acres, and leaving 806 leases covering 264,993.34 acres.

The leases have been paying in the last few years as follows (for schools only):[1]

From June 20 to June 30, 1910	$440.50
From July 1, 1910, to June 30, 1911	16,285.68
From July 1, 1911, to June 30, 1912	27,737.71
From July 1, 1912, to June 30, 1913	36,226.65
1913 (estimated)	40,000.00

This is not all the income to the State from this source, for, as a matter of fact, the State and the counties receive in all about 46 per cent of the total gross receipts from the national forests within the State. The expenses of administration are paid by the Federal Government. The gross revenue is divided as follows: 25 per cent is paid to the counties, in proportion to the forest area in each for the joint benefit of the common schools and roads; 10 per cent is expended on the roads within the forests under direction of the Secretary of Agriculture, and about 11 per cent is paid to the State as the proportion to which the school fund is entitled under the terms of the enabling act.

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[1] Figures from Report of Land Commission, 1912–1914, p. 68.

The total undivided forest, school, and road fund in the last five years has been:[1]

1911–12	$55,385.62
1912–13	151,039.75
1913–14[2]	74,659.49
1914–15	63,398.34
1915–16	59,807.89

(d) SCHOOL LANDS ON INDIAN RESERVATIONS.

Of the public-school lands included in sections 2, 16, 32, and 36, the sum of 1,746,860.01 acres is included in Indian reservations. About 24 per cent of the acreage of the whole State is bound up in Indian reservations, and of this amount almost exactly one-tenth would of right belong to the schools. The school lands thus included in the reservations make up about 21.5 per cent of the total school possessions. The largest of these tracts is the 903,837.51 acres within the Navajo Reservation, and the smallest the 560 acres within the Mojave Reservation. The San Carlos Apaches cover 177,920 acres and the White Mountain Apaches (Fort Apache) almost an identical amount. The revised statutes of the United States provide that when such school lands fall within the limits of Indian reservations the State may either select other lands of equal value or it may await the extinction of the Indian title. A preliminary survey of these lands made by the land commission of the State brought the conclusion that with certain exceptions the school lands within the reservations should be relinquished and indemnity lands taken in their place, for they are practically all desert. This was regarded as especially true of the Navajo and Moqui lands, which contain 1,177,945.09 acres, and which, after careful investigation, were considered as practically worthless. With reference to the two Apache reservations, making up a total of 355,679.25 acres, and the Kaibab and Colorado River reservations containing 41,267.65 acres, it was thought best for the State to await the extinguishment of the Indian title, for the Colorado River lands are susceptible of irrigation either by pumping or diversion, while portions of the Apache lands are well watered and susceptible of extensive development.

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[1] See Reports State Treasurer for 1911–12 to 1915–16.

[2] See Report of Land Commission, 1912–1914, p. 63.

Of the remaining school lands, 168,707.62 acres are appropriated by United States entry, and so subject to indemnity; 76,164.11 acres are reported as in other reservations, and 3,134,555.20 acres as unsurveyed and unreserved, but the land commission is of the opinion that these lands when available will average quite as high in value as those now in place. The total withdrawal for survey up to January 1, 1917, amounted to 4,346,145 acres.

Although the public schools possess some very valuable tracts of land, like the 25,000 acres under the Salt River and Yuma Government projects and many other tracts which fall within well-settled and well-developed districts, it will be found on comparing these lands with the institutional lands, that their average value is in general low. This is because large sections fall in the mountains and in localities that possess no advantages or possibilities except for grazing, while some tracts are occasionally totally barren.

II. THE INSTITUTIONAL LANDS.

It is now possible to turn from the public-school lands to the institutional lands. The amount of these lands, and the definite purpose to which each allotment has been assigned, has been considered already.[1]

It remains only to review briefly the progress made in selecting these lands from the public domain. The lands granted the State for institutions by the enabling act amounted to 2,350,000 acres, and by the terms of the act they were to be selected by a commission composed of the governor, the surveyor general, or some other person acting with the authority of that officer, and the attorney general. To meet the requirements of the law the chairman of the State land commission has performed the duties of the surveyor general. Up to December 1, 1914, the date of his first report, formal selection had been made of 636,661.16 acres, of which patents for 289,358.12 acres had been issued, while an additional amount of 3,993,235 acres had been withdrawn from settlement for survey and selection, so that in all the commission has initiated the State's claim on a total of 4,629,896.16 acres. With the selection of these institutional lands goes also the selection of indemnity public-school lands, "to reimburse the common-school grant for such portions of the place lands granted for that purpose as have been or may hereafter be alienated by settlers prior to the survey of the land or prior to the rights of the State accruing." On December 1, 1914, there had been thus alienated 168,707.62 acres, "and this amount, as the public land surveys go forward, will increase."

In selecting these institutional lands and withdrawing them from survey the principle has been followed that they should have either a present or a prospective agricultural value. This has been done on the theory that (1) the lands susceptible of cultivation or of reclamation by any method will ultimately be the most valuable, and (2) that the reservation of lands "at present fit only for grazing, but possessing the elements of a much higher degree of economic usefulness, spells the highest type of true conservation and the insurance of steady and sane development." In accord with these ideas, out of the 636,661.16 acres selected and patents to which have been asked, it is estimated that 618,891.89 acres "are susceptible of some form of agricultural development," that 578,193.16 acres have a grazing value, and that 8,744.61 acres have a woodland value. The lands selected lie mostly in Cochise, Graham, Maricopa, Pima, Pinal, Yavapai, and Yuma Counties, and out of the 2,350,000 acres given, there are yet to be selected 1,713,339.65 acres.[1] None have been located in Gila, Greenlee, or Santa Cruz Counties.

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[1] Ch. 8, p. 88.

Of all the institutions thus favored with public lands, the miners' hospital and the military institutions have alone to date located practically all their lands.

Under the congressional act of February 18, 1881, 72 sections of land were given to the Territory "for the use and support of a university." In 1882 Hon. Moses Hazeltine Sherman, then Territorial superintendent of public instruction, filed on 45,678.68 acres of land in Coconino County and now embraced in the Coconino and Tusayan National Forests. Of these lands 36,890.14 acres were approved in 1890. In 1904 a further grant of 320 acres for a desert laboratory was selected near Tucson. The university therefore has 37,210.14 acres, and there is a balance of 8,869.86 acres still to be selected. The land already patented embraces 58¼ sections; some 3,596.24 acres are suitable in some measure for agricultural purposes; the entire area is most excellent for grazing but "by far the greatest value of the land lies in its magnificent stand of western yellow pine," estimated on February 1, 1913, as amounting to 300,000,000 feet of merchantable lumber for the entire area. The university lands, as well as school and institutional lands, are administered by the land commission.

The land commission gives in its first report (p. 165) the total amount of receipts from State lands for schools, February 14, 1912, to November 30, 1915, as school lands, $131,633.85; university lands, $61,740.66.

The land commission discusses also the necessity of a flexible land policy. It advocates—

a policy of land efficiency, elimination of energy and money waste, clear understanding and hearty cooperation between Government and citizen. The

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[1] The total number of acres granted on this account up to Jan. 1, 1917, was 707,857.16. The amount "awaiting approval" by the Land Office was 1,308,505.20 acres, and there then remained to be selected a total of 334,137.64 acres.

> plan includes classification, demonstration, and in necessary cases reclamation, directly by the State or by cooperation with private individuals or with the Federal Government. Classification should be scientific and thorough. * * * Demonstration would prove an invaluable chart for prospective purchasers. * * * Reclamation is essential if the highest efficiency of some hundreds of thousands of Arizona's so-called desert acres is to be realized, and if the cry for population is to be adequately answered.

The first land commission report urges also "the necessity existing for the establishment, by law, of separate funds corresponding to the different purposes for which lands, granted or confirmed by the enabling act, are being administered by the commission."[1]

III. THE LAND LAW OF 1915.

The State land commission of Arizona created by act of May 20, 1912 (ch. 93), was by that act given a lease of life extending to the end of the legislative session of 1915. It therefore became necessary to reestablish the commission by a new act. This was done by chapter 5, second special session, approved on June 26, 1915.[2] This act provided for a State land department and created the office of commissioner of State lands to carry out the provision of the act. The State land department is composed of a body of five, made up of the governor, secretary of state, attorney general, State treasurer, and State auditor. They were to appoint the State land commissioner and were to sell or lease lands. The commissioner was in charge of all State lands except such as are under the specific use and control of State institutions. He and his assistants were required to give bond and make a semiannual report. The governor, the land commissioner, and the attorney general were constituted a board to make selections of lands and perform other duties pertaining to securing titles. This board reproduces the old board created by the act of 1912 and to whom the executive work of the State land commission was then intrusted. Lands were to be classified as agricultural, grazing, timber, etc. They were to be appraised, and owners were entitled to reimbursement for improvements. Lands might be leased for not more than five years; not more than 160 acres of agricultural land or 640 acres grazing land to one person, association, or corporation. Grazing lands were to be leased for not less than 3 cents per acre and agricultural lands for not less than 2½ per cent of their estimated value. Leases reserved to the State oil, gas, coal, ore, minerals, fertilizers, and fossils. Lessees who did not renew leases might remove their improvements or sell them to the new lessee or purchaser.

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[1] This discussion of the public lands in Arizona granted by the Federal Government for the use of schools is based on the report of the State land commission of Arizona for the period between June 6, 1912 (the date of its organization under the law of May 20, 1912), and Dec. 1, 1914. This report contains a detailed discussion and review of the whole subject as relating to Arizona and presents both an interesting and valuable study of the subject. The first three biennial reports for July 1, 1915, to Dec. 31, 1916, have been consulted also.

[2] See acts, second special session, 1915, pp. 13-57.

State lands in general are subject to appraisement and sale. Those containing minerals or oil or adjacent to such lands in private lands are withheld from sale. The commissioner might sell without application, but total yearly sales were limited to 200,000 acres, and this amount was not to include more than 320 acres of lands susceptible of immediate cultivation, except irrigable lands. The minimum price of such lands was $3 per acre and of lands in irrigation projects not less than $25 per acre. The terms of sale were 1 per cent of purchase price when the successful bidder was announced; 4 per cent on delivery of certificate of sale; the remainder in 38 annual payments with interest at 5 per cent. The purchaser might discharge the whole debt at any time by paying interest in advance for six months. If the purchaser failed to pay principal and interest when due, the certificate of purchase was to be forfeited.

In accord with the directions of the constitution the act of 1915 created 15 special funds to receive the moneys accruing from the sale of the public lands. These funds are as follows: (*a*) Permanent school fund;(*b*) university land fund; (*c*) legislative, executive, and judicial buildings fund; (*d*) penitentiary land fund; (*e*) asylum for the insane land fund; (*f*) schools and asylums for the deaf, dumb, and blind land fund; (*g*) miners' hospital for disabled miners' land fund; (*h*) normal school land fund; (*i*) State charitable, penal, and reformatory institutions land fund; (*j*) agricultural and mechanical college land fund; (*k*) school of mines land fund; (*l*) military institutes land fund; (*m*) county bonds land fund; (*n*) State land administrative land fund; (*o*) State land classification and appraisement fund. Of these funds perhaps all except those numbered *c*, *d*, *e*, and *g* bore either directly or indirectly on the subject of public education.

The State treasurer was directed to invest the money belonging to any of these permanent funds in United States bonds, Arizona bonds, or in bonds of the counties, municipalities, and school districts of the State, or in first mortgages on farm lands.

It will be noted that the new law increases the power of the land department. It is now authorized to lease mineral lands; to conduct investigations and experiments to determine which lands are suitable for agriculture, which may be made so by the development of water, and which are suitable for grazing purposes only. It also has power to make and file water locations and appropriations, reservoir. dam, and power sites; to control and dispose of stone and gravel and other land products. The receipts of the land commission are now assigned to the proper fund to which they belong, and which were created by the act of 1915. The permanent school fund received:[1]

July 1 to Dec. 31, 1915	$36,805.73
Jan. 1 to June 30, 1916	53,542.39
July 1 to Dec. 31, 1916	137,741.67

The institutions land funds were:[1]

Jan. 1 to June 30, 1916	$6,124.65
July 1 to Dec. 31, 1916	18,961.35

After the selection and patenting of the school and institutional lands, the most important duties of the land department are those connected with the appraising, leasing, and selling of these lands to settlers. The demand is steadily increasing. In the first half year of administration under the present law, the period from July 1 to December 31, 1915, the total applications for all counties were 604, covering 249,350.01 acres. The total number of applications for these lands from the date of statehood, February 14, 1912, to December 31, 1916, was 15,939, of which 8,592 applications or more than half were received in the six months between July 1 and December 31, 1916. During this same six months' period a total of 648,500 acres were selected by the State, and there were still to be selected by the terms of the enabling act a balance of 200,000 acres of institutional lands.

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[1] See State treasurer's reports.

Chapter X.

THE PAST, THE PRESENT, AND THE FUTURE.

When a general view of the history and growth of the public school movement in Arizona is undertaken, it is easily possible to comprehend the steady, if uneven, development in the course of the same. In the first place the Territory did not receive its preliminary organization until the days of the Civil War, and was therefore the heir of all that had been said or done or thought on the subject of education in the older States. In the next place the first American settlers came from States in which the public system was already more or less developed, and in seeking for a basis of action in their new surroundings they naturally turned to the experience they had had in their earlier homes; and finally their proposed new organization was to meet no insuperable obstacle in its path, for the Indians, averse to all civilization, had to be subdued first of all by force of arms, and the Mexicans, although reared under the theory of church schools only, and in general favorable to that view so far as they had any intelligent opinions, only for a brief interval presented any serious obstacle to the development of public education. Lastly, the Territory was practically wanting in schools of any sort, so that there was little or no resistance from other interests. There were no private or Protestant church schools. Such Catholic schools as existed were devoted largely to the education of Mexican and Indian children, and were separated to a certain extent from the field to which public-school workers were mainly devoting themselves. It is therefore substantially true to say that the first advocates of the public school found a field without previous claimants, clear of obstacles, fallow for cultivation, and with the greater part of the more intelligent population in direct sympathy with its purpose.

This was the situation during the earlier years of the Territory. Fortunately, the men in charge of the organization knew their duties and met its requirements like men. The Howell code, drawn up before the meeting of the first legislature, provided for the organization of a school system which was unquestioningly accepted as its rule of action at the first meeting of the representatives of the people.

As soon as practicable the legislature turned to the subject of school legislation. As early as 1867 they passed their first school law. This was amended, improved, and reenacted in 1868. It provided for a system of schools based on the idea that local taxation should alone be responsible for the support of the teaching force. This idea was an error. The population was weak and scattered; the local wealth was small; the property holders were not accustomed to taxes for local school purposes; and as the Territory as such did nothing, the laws of 1867 and 1868 accomplished little: not more than one or two schools were organized, and these did little or nothing in serving as centers from which the light of education might penetrate primeval darkness. The law of 1868 recognized, however, the necessity of local supervision, also a certain necessary uniformity in the textbooks and the certification of teachers, but this law likewise failed to accomplish its purpose; schools remained a purely local matter, and the subject of education slept till the coming of a new governor.

The new governor appeared in 1869. He was Anson P. K. Safford, and from California came this new Moses, destined to lead Arizona from darkness to educational light. To him it was given to win for himself the title of Father of the Public Schools. W does he deserve the title. He found them a pleasing theory: left them a thriving reality. Since his day the question of th final triumph over all obstacles has not been an article of faith one of fact, demonstrated by tangible evidence. It is a long story, this long, stern fight against the indifference of ignorance and the opposition of a small body of men who sought to weaken school progress by dividing school funds.

In 1871 a new school bill, based on the California school law, was introduced and passed and has been the basis of practically all school legislation since that time. But the school act of 1871 was not obtained without effort. The earlier school laws had failed to accomplish their purpose, while the Apaches had been far too successful in their efforts to destroy the settlements. They had waged almost ceaseless warfare since the organization of the Territory. Many citizens had been slain, many ranches and settlements broken up. The legislators were more or less demoralized, and to the governor's urging that the bill be passed they asked "What's the use?" But the governor was insistent; he called to his aid Estevan Ochoa, the leading Mexican in the Territory, and to the objection that the Apaches were overrunning the country pointed out that they would in time be subdued and without schools the settlers would themselves soon be as unfit for self-government as the Apaches.

The bill did not become a law till the last day of the session, and then with most of the revenue stricken out. But the new law had features which redeemed it from the weakness of the earlier acts and made it a basis of future activity. It provided for a Territorial superintendent of schools, but as money was scarce and the enthusiasm of the governor great, the duties of the new office were attached to that of the governor without extra pay further than an allowance for traveling expenses. It thus provided for Territorial supervision, levied a compulsory Territorial tax of 10 cents on the hundred for school purposes, and also ordered a county tax of 50 cents on the hundred. In these taxes the legislature recognized the public-school system as one of the necessary parts of a modern State and provided for its support in the same manner and by the same methods as other State activities. Then and there the question of public support for public schools was settled for all time. Only once in the history of the Territory was this theory challenged and then in vain.

From the time that the bill of 1871 became a law Gov. Safford was its most persistent advocate. Up and down the length and breadth of the Territory, into every county, in the most out-of-the-way places he went, seeking to arouse and encourage the scattered settlements to provide for and organize schools. Advice, direction, suggestion, help, correction, enthusiasm, and courage were poured out like water in a thirsty land; everywhere and always did this devoted missionary preach the new gospel. Not only did he visit the older and more secure sections but also the new settlements where the blood of Apache victims was still fresh on the ground. Up and down through this sun-kissed land, across swollen streams or up their dry beds, over sandy deserts, through naked and forbidding mountains, risking encounters with wild animals and wilder men, passed this modern representative of the spirit of the age, this apostle of modern democracy, preaching always in season and out of season the new doctrine of educational salvation. Always abounding in the work which he had set himself to do, Gov. Safford won over suspicion and overcame opposition. He brought a principal to Prescott from Vermont; he brought teachers to Tucson from California. He came, he saw, he conquered. Only once did the opposition seriously threaten his plans; this was in 1875 when it was proposed to give to religious organizations their share of the public funds for parochial schools. But the sober sense of the people asserted itself; the proposed plan was rejected, and the public schools went on secure in their new freedom.

The result of the enthusiastic work of the governor was that the public schools began to take a firm hold on public consciousness. They took deep root in the soil of public confidence which he had so carefully prepared. They grew and developed. They prospered and increased year by year. The years 1874–75 and 1875–76 seem to represent the high-water mark for the period of Gov. Safford's activities. In 1876–77 a decline set in, for in April of the latter year he resigned the governorship because of impaired health.

The unfavorable reaction of that year is clearly shown in the available statistics, but the schools had made a good start, the momentum already attained soon carried them over this handicap and there was a substantial increase in 1877–78 in the total enrollment, average attendance, and total income, and this last item permitted an increase in expenditures. The number of teachers increased, but there was a shortening of the school term, and owing to a general fall of prices a decrease in teachers' wages. It may be said therefore that the withdrawal of Gov. Safford from school leadership did not have the permanent effects that might have been expected. He had builded so well that his removal caused only a temporary reaction, and it awoke the legislature to the desirability of putting the schools under a separate officer. This was done by the act of February 14, 1879, but no salary was attached to the office other than the $500 per annum formerly allowed the governor for expenses.

Gov. Frémont commissioned Moses H. Sherman, then principal of the Prescott schools, to take over the schools of the whole Territory in addition to his other school duties as superintendent at Prescott. It does not appear, however, that Sherman did much more than attend to the clerical duties of the office. The organization of the schools, the evolution of a course of study, the perfecting and settling on a series of textbooks to be used throughout the Territory, the codification and coordination of the school laws, the revising and defining the duties of county school officers, the organization of county institutes, the readjustment of county and Territorial school taxes, the proper apportionment of school funds, the recognition and granting of diplomas, the certification of teachers, were all matters which were left in the main by Supt. Sherman to his official successors. To Supts. Horton and Long is due the chief credit of taking the disjointed, disconnected, unorganized, and never articulated elements of a Territorial system and uniting them into a single whole. This work was largely accomplished in the administrations running from 1883 to 1887.

But while the decade of the eighties saw the first organization of the schools into a Territorial system started on its way, the same decade and the next witnessed the bitter factional fights that were growing out of the general educational situation of Territorial affairs. The Territory was naturally Democratic in politics. The Federal Government, on the other hand, was for the greater part of the time Republican, and its appointees, the Territorial governor and superintendent, were of the same political faith. There was therefore constant friction between the people and the administration. This resulted in serious limitations on the superintendent's authority; he was reduced to the position of a clerk; once they refused to confirm a superintendent because refusal to confirm made it possible for his successor to be a member of the administration majority; in another case the salary of the regularly appointed superintendent was cut more than in half by the legislature to force him to resign; while in other cases men were forced out of positions in the normal school simply because they were not members of the right political group, and these are only the worst phases of a struggle which was kept up for more than a decade, which penetrated to the very extremities of the system and affected seriously the work of the period. The greatest harm was done between 1887 and 1899. Before that date this spirit had manifested itself but little; after that time the people came to realize the harm that was coming to themselves from this unhappy mixture of politics and education, and a working basis of forbearance was attained, and the schools entered on a period of more harmonious development.

The close of the century marks also a realization of the necessity for fewer administrative changes, more uniformity in development, and greater continuity of ideals. Since the beginning of this century, and especially since the attainment of statehood, the system has been more and more in the way of realizing this desirable situation. Superintendents have therefore been better able to evolve their plans and carry them into execution, the schools have been less handicapped by failure to follow out plans when once undertaken. Since admission to statehood and the recognition of the school superintendency as an elective office, the conflict between political parties which appeared often in Territorial days has disappeared.

The question of school funds has always been less of a problem in Arizona than in most States. The schools have usually been able to command all the funds needed for their normal development. In the past it has even been found necessary to reduce taxes to prevent an accumulation of more funds than could be used, but other problems, that of distance, for instance, is ever present and will be for very many years to come, for there are still many stretches of wild waste separating one community from another, and many small mining camps and isolated ranches must suffer for the lack of opportunities for education that does not apply to the larger centers. It is the old trouble which has always been a bugbear to scattered communities in thinly settled States. Arizona is liberal in her provisions for the small community, recognizing it if there are as many as eight pupils, but there are still localities with a few pupils only, who do not as yet receive the fostering care of the State.

Since the State has come into the administration of her public-school lands this great estate is being taken over as fast as it can be selected and surveyed. The State is making wise provisions for its sale, fixing minimum prices for the same, and the sales seem to be conducted with a minimum of irregularity. The income from this source is increasing from year to year and bids fair in the future to become in itself so important that it will go far toward maintaining the school system.

The trend of progress may be shown by statistics from 1880 to date, which in the case of this State cover practically the whole field of its history.

Comparative table of illiteracy.

Years.	Illiterates 10 years of age and over.								Illiterates 10 to 20 years of age.	
	Native white.		Foreign white.		Negro.		All classes.			
	Number.	Per cent.	Number.	Per cent.	Number.	Per cent.	Number.	Per cent.	Number.	Per cent.
1880	1,225	8.1	3,509	26.8	[1] 1,018	23.7	5,842	17.7	1,659	24.7
1890	2,056	7.9	6,900	42.2	245	19.2	10,785	19.5	[2] 2,621	24.1
1900	3,096	6.2	7,552	35.3	211	12.7	27,307	29.0	6,243	22.9
1910	3,776	4.2	13,758	31.5	122	7.2	32,953	20.9	7,146	18.0

[1] "Colored persons"; no mention of Chinese or others.

[2] Estimated.

These tables when interpreted mean that there was an ab- increase in the number of illiterates in the State at each census 1880 to 1910, inclusive; that this increase was nearly 13 per when measured in per cents, and in actual numbers was 21,465 greater in 1900 than in 1890; that only in the decade beginning with 1900 did the Territory recover its equilibrium, for in 1910 the total illiteracy had been reduced by 8.1 per cent, but the per cent is still greater than in 1880 and the State yet has a great work before it.

That while the number of white illiterates is now three times as great as in 1880, in percentage it is a little less than one-half as great; that while the number of illiterate foreigners was greater in 1910 than in 1880 by 10,259, in per cents it is less than 5 per cent greater than in 1880 and is 11 per cent less than 1890; that Negro illiterates have decreased steadily both in number and per cents; that while the number of illiterates between 10 and 20 years of age has increased from 1,659 to 7,146, the per cent has decreased from 24.7 to 18 per cent.

While these figures taken by themselves would seem to indicate that in some respects the State is doing little more than holding its own, it will be noticed that when 1900 and 1910 are compared the progress of the last decade becomes clearly visible, and most of the best work of the State has even been done since the last census was taken. The progress of the young State, as compared with the Territorial period, may be briefly summarized as follows:

With the better articulation that has obtained in recent years the educational institutions have developed rapidly, and the normal schools and university are now in a fair way to supply the State demand for teachers, although at present the laws in force discourage the young teacher from beginning work in his home State. Educational journalism is behind, due undoubtedly to lack of support, this coming in turn from lack of teachers and the scarcity of persons interested in educational problems. The State has not yet grown beyond the stage of physical necessities on the one hand and the mere accumulation of wealth on the other, but the basis of the centralization and expression of school thought has been laid in the teachers' county institutes and the Teachers' State Association. With all the money needed, the State still awaits the increase in personnel which is as necessary as material. Indeed, one of the troubles in Arizona has always been that the pupils increased faster than the accommodations. For this reason it was ofttimes impossible to enforce the compulsory attendance laws. Schoolhouses, although built by bond issues more often than by taxes, at this period were often inadequate.

In recent years commendable progress has been made toward centralization. The examination of teachers is in the hands of the State superintendent. He mails the questions for the formal teachers' examinations to the county superintendents, who acting in the capacity of educational clerks set the examination. The papers are then read and graded in the superintendent's office and to each teacher is guaranteed equality of treatment and of marking. The offices of county judge of probate and county superintendent have been entirely separated by law, and salaries assigned in proportion to services rendered.

The State board of education is the authority in the organization and administration of educational affairs. The State superintendent takes his orders from this board and is its executive officer.

The enrollment and attendance in Arizona have always been relatively high, and in the last 20 years the enrollment has never been less than 71 per cent (1913–14) of the school population and has been as high as 86 per cent (1910–11). During the same period the per cent of those enrolled in average attendance has risen from 59 (1898–99) to 78.5 per cent in 1915–16, and the per cent of school population in average attendance has gone from 41.6 per cent in 1901–2 to 56.1 per cent in 1915–16.[1] It is to be noted also that this attendance is on a basis of the total school population between 6 and 21 years of age and makes no allowance for pupils in private schools. This increase in attendance is not at any uniform rate, but when one period is compared with another it becomes very marked.

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[1] The Bureau of Education figures out that the average daily attendance of all pupils between 5 and 18 years was in 1913–14 as much as 74.2 per cent for the whole United States. On the same basis Arizona was given an attendance of 67.5 per cent. When the three years above 18 are included, the attendance average would naturally be lower.

The standardization of schools is being advanced and schoolhouses are being erected, larger and better than those of earlier decades and well suited to the needs of the day. Industrial and vocational education is recognized and provided for in special institutions, in the university, the normal schools, and also in the high schools. The State, after a long preliminary period in which uniformity of textbooks was provided by law but not always enforced in practice, has come to realize the desirability of providing all books at State expense, and a pension system is being tried. Many of these lines of endeavor are still in the trial period, but they indicate the trend of the times.

As yet there has not been attained in Arizona the centralization needed to place on the State department of education the responsibility for providing equal opportunities. As recently pointed out by the survey of the United States Bureau of Education the board itself should be reorganized and its power increased; all politics should be eliminated in both county and State affairs; the powe the county board should be increased also with a reorganizatio the methods of apportionment and an extension of expert supervi of rural schools.

When these and similar measures have been carried out there will not be lacking the centralized administration necessary to attain State-wide progress "without unnecessary delay and expense."

PUBLIC SCHOOL STATISTICS—1870-1916.

TABLE 1.—*School population, teachers, property, and school year.*

Years.	School population.[1]	Teachers.	Schools.[2]	Monthly salary.	Days in school year.	Value school property.
1870	1,923	....	....	....	....	....
1872-73	1,660	....	....	....	....	....
1873-74	2,584	11	11	[3] $100.00	180	....
1874-75	2,508	14	14	100.00	180	....
1875-76	2,955	21	21	110.00	....	....
1876-77	....	31	28	100.00	190	$44,436
1877-78	3,089	37	28	91.00	124	47,479
1878-79	5,291	51	51	74.00	165	78,681
1879-80	7,148	101	101	83.00	109	113,074
1880-81	9,571	102	148	84.00	....	121,318
1881-82	10,283	126	98	....	....	116,751
1882-83	9,376	98	104	75.00	120	82,183
1883-84	9,376	143	121	85.00	140	153,466
1884-85 [4]	10,219	131	137	86.00	120	212,385
1885-86 [4]	10,219	150	150	78.00	140	201,984
1886-87 [4]	10,303	175	169	81.00	143	176,238
1887-88 [4]	10,303	191	184	80.00	124	222,219
1888-89 [4]	12,588	199	197	79.00	135	222,958
1889-90 [4]	12,976	240	219	77.00	126	268,435
1890-91	13,874	....	237	....	127	297,444
1891-92	14,710	....	251	....	124	320,609

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[1] Until 1883 the school age was 6 to 21; 1884 to April, 1901, 6 to 18; since 1901, 6 to 21.

[2] During the earlier years these are referred to as "school rooms," "in 1881-82, as districts." They were one-teacher schools.

[3] Through 1880-81 these figures are for men. The salaries of women were as follows: 1873-74, $100; 1874-75, $100; 1875-76, $90; 1876-77, $50; 1877-78, $74; 1878-79, $68; 1879-80, $70; 1880-81, $68. The figures given beginning with 1882-83 are the average of all salaries.

[4] From report for 1889-90; these figures do not always agree with those in other reports. They are probably in most cases only approximate.

Table 1.—*School population, teachers, property, and school year*—Continued.

Years.	School population.	Teachers.	Schools.	Monthly salary.	Days in school year.	Value school property.
1892-93	15,463	280	265	$78.18	130	$344,646
1893-94	16,403	293	289	75.30	124	405,446
1894-95	15,909	321	261	70.41	120	414,447
1895-96	16,936	324	293	68.54	126	428,935
1896-97	17,427	350	337	65.41	128	445,379
1897-98	18,802	435	347	67.50	130	472,107
1898-99	19,523	373	375	67.77	127	490,504
1899-1900	20,833	390	398	67.00	125	539,024
1900-1901	23,435	445	428	68.47	128	612,929
1901-2	25,250	457	442	75.30	125	654,942
1902-3	25,961	482	467	71.00	125	783,735
1903-4	27,324	519	498	72.00	130	882,790
1904-5	29,200	536	523	72.21	125	970,902
1905-6	30,230	554	542	74.55	125	1,041,888
1906-7	33,160	626	596	74.91	128.4	1,158,335
1907-8	34,290	645	633	79.19	135	1,409,788
1908-9	34,299	....	....	....	....	....
1909-10	36,729	....	....	....	....	....
1910-11	38,611	876	785	84.70	....	....
1911-12	42,381	895	814	86.58	....	1,845,021
1912-13	46,681	1,020	865	86.98	....	2,102,419
1913-14	53,845	1,096	1,020	89.56	....	....
1914-15	56,471	1,219	1,082	91.61	....	....
1915-16	61,073	1,364	1,138	91.76	....	....

Table 2.—*Enrollment and attendance.*

Years.	Total school enrollment.	Per cent of school population enrolled.	Average school attendance.	Per cent of enrollment in average attendance.	Per cent of school population in average attendance.
1872-73	333	20.0	....	....	....
1873-74	343	13.2	....	....	....
1874-75	568	22.3	419	73.8	16.7
1875-76	1,213	41.0	900	74.2	30.4
1876-77	903	....	580	....	....
1877-78	2,740	88.7	890	32.5	28.8
1878-79	3,143	59.3	1,102	35.1	20.8
1879-80	4,212	58.9	2,847	67.6	39.8
1880-81	3,844	40.2	....	....	....
1882-83	3,751	40.0	2,554	68.0	27.2
1883-84	4,516	48.1	3,287	72.8	35.0
1884-85	4,974	48.6	3,226	64.9	31.5
1885-86	6,076	59.6	3,507	57.7	34.3
1886-87	....	....	3,602	....	34.9
1887-88	....	....	3,849	....	37.3
1888-89	7,286	58.6	4,293	58.9	34.1
1889-90	7,989	61.5	4,702	58.8	37.0
1890-91	....	....	5,047	....	36.4
1891-92	....	....	5,198	....	35.3
1892-93	10,104	65.3	5,340	52.5	34.5
1893-94	11,319	68.7	6,791	60.0	41.9
1894-95	11,450	71.9	7,034	61.4	44.1
1895-96	12,889	76.1	7,641	59.2	45.1
1896-97	13,367	76.7	8,983	67.2	51.5
1897-98	14,713	78.2	9,011	61.2	47.9
1898-99	15,893	80.2	9,396	59.1	47.4
1899-1900	16,504	79.2	10,177	61.6	48.8
1900-1901	17,817	76.0	10,951	61.4	42.4
1901-2	19,203	76.0	11,514	59.9	41.6
1902-3	20,008	77.1	12,105	60.4	46.6
1903-4	21,366	78.1	13,022	60.9	47.6
1904-5	21,792	74.4	14,009	64.3	47.4
1905-6	23,223	76.8	14,448	62.2	47.7
1906-7	25,360	76.1	15,667	61.8	47.2
1907-8	27,023	78.7	16,928	62.6	49.3
1910-11	33,029	86.8	21,776	65.9	56.1
1911-12	33,310	78.6	22,813	68.5	53.8
1912-13	33,336	75.0	25,003	71.4	53.5
1913-14	42,036	71.1	29,912	78.1	55.5
1914-15	43,316	72.8	31,555	76.6	55.9
1915-16	47,945	71.5	34,257	78.5	56.1

TABLE 3.—*School revenue and school expenditures.*

Years.	Income from State taxes.	County and district taxes.	From other funds, including balances.	Total receipts.	Salaries of teachers and superintendents.	Miscellaneous expenditures.	Total expenditures.	Tax valuation, hundreds omitted.
1872-73				$5,849			$20,211	
1873-74				11,417				
1874-75	$4,690	$9,232	$14,837	28,760			24,152	
1875-76				31,449	$11,089	$17,655	28,744	
1876-77				20,708			18,407	
1877-78				21,396			21,396	
1878-79				32,421			29,200	
1879-80				67,028			61,172	
1880-81				58,768			44,628	
1881-82				101,967			98,268	
1882-83	19,007	82,383	(1)	101,390			77,998	$31,588,000
1883-84	27,959	177,942	(1)	205,901	59,878		161,862	30,228,000
1884-85[2]	19,199	87,768	79,699	186,666	78,839		138,165	28,683,000
1885-86[2]	10,662	85,760	18,441	159,956	89,551		135,030	23,207,000
1886-87[2]				120,045			117,005	26,194,000
1887-88[2]				157,707			130,212	25,913,000
1888-89[2]	3,496	145,809	30,477	179,782	105,910	44,634	150,543	27,057,000
1889-90[2]	1,783	170,277	29,239	201,289	123,178	54,306	177,484	28,050,000
1890-91				236,743			198,762	28,270,000
1891-92				247,202			207,898	27,923,000
1892-93				266,069			221,213	28,486,000
1893-94				205,611			176,671	27,062,000
1894-95	[3] 164,099	[4] 14,266	32,913	211,278	140,573	62,444	203,016	
1895-96	[3] 190,743	[4] 11,235	17,138	219,116	152,438	62,013	214,451	28,047,000
1896-97	[3] 213,152	[4] 2,436	4,190	219,778	155,991	49,958	205,949	30,693,000
1897-98	[3] 233,094	[4] 454	16,735	250,279	169,981	54,295	224,186	31,474,000
1898-99	10,000	204,167	47,970	295,884	178,114	60,481	241,556	32,510,000
1899-1900	11,101	218,580	100,749	421,776	189,189	110,542	345,314	33,782,000
1900-1901	11,458	194,285	205,502	411,244	214,266	112,572	336,839	38,854,000
1901-2	22,951	209,736	297,962	530,649	224,600	176,636	401,236	39,083,000
1902-3	25,761	249,118	226,581	501,460	242,848	172,291	412,741	43,068,000
1903-4	32,439	271,051	252,370	555,859	256,714	181,715	438,828	45,070,000
1904-5	38,217	278,571	214,787	531,575	401,001	114,826	515,828	57,920,000
1905-6	41,006	330,057	208,323	579,385	448,924	163,780	612,703	62,228,000
1906-7	43,833	397,979	255,949	697,762	508,207	161,155	669,362	77,372,000
1907-8	66,338	491,323	256,402	814,063	603,505	321,421	924,926	80,638,000
1908-9	[5] 61,758							82,684,000
1909-10	[5] 54,687							86,126,000
1910-11	[5] 63,981							98,033,000
1911-12	58,308	633,397	1,125,943	1,817,647	[6] 890,533	431,062	1,321,595	140,388,000
1912-13	124,886	797,423	1,419,743	2,342,052	941,563	636,577	1,578,141	375,862,000
1913-14	475,529	734,946	1,210,475	3,187,023	1,212,116	1,923,432	2,135,549	407,267,000
1914-15	460,852	695,959	2,173,602	3,330,413	1,509,633	1,064,850	2,574,484	420,000,000
1915-16	478,572	1,008,441	2,173,871	3,660,883	1,515,576	1,151,501	2,667,077	

[1] Not differentiated.

[2] From report of 1889-90; the figures differ from those in the report of 1885-86.

[3] No returns from Apache and Coconino Counties.

[4] Includes district taxes only.

[5] These figures from House Journal, special session, 1912, p. 169.

[6] From this date these items are called "school maintenance."

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Hamilton, Patrick. Resources of Arizona, 1883. 8°.

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Much material of general importance, with some items on education.

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1885 and 1886, July 1 to June 30, Long.
1887 and 1888, Strauss. If a report was issued for this period it has not been seen.
1889 and 1890, Cheyney.
1891 and 1892, Cheyney. No report seen.
1893 and 1894, Netherton.
1895 and 1896, Dalton.
1897 and 1898, Shewman.
1899 and 1900, Long.
1901 and 1902, Layton.
1903 and 1904, Layton.
1905 and 1906, Long.
1907 and 1908, Long.
1909 and 1910, Moore. No report seen.
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○

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[Continued from page 2 of cover.]

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No. 51. Moral values in secondary education. A report of the Commission on Second Education. Henry Neumann.
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DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR
BUREAU OF EDUCATION

BULLETIN, 1918, No. 18

AMERICANIZATION AS A WAR MEASURE

REPORT OF A CONFERENCE
CALLED BY THE SECRETARY OF
THE INTERIOR, AND HELD IN
WASHINGTON, APRIL 3, 1918

WASHINGTON
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE
1918

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AMERICANIZATION AS A WAR MEASURE.

INTRODUCTION.

At the suggestion of the National Committee of One Hundred, the Advisory Council on Americanization to the United States Bureau of Education, the Secretary of the Interior called a conference on Americanization as a War Measure, which was held in the auditorium of the Department of the Interior building, beginning at 10 a. m., April 3, 1918. Hon. Franklin K. Lane, Secretary of the Interior, presided, and Mr. H. H. Wheaton, of the Bureau of Education, acted as secretary.

The following governors, State officers, officials of commercial and industrial organizations and corporations, representatives of National and State Councils of Defense, educators, and others were in attendance and participated:

GOVERNORS AND OTHER STATE OFFICERS.

George W. P. Hunt, governor of Arizona.
Julius C. Gunter, governor of Colorado.
John G. Townsend, governor of Delaware.
Hugh M. Dorsey, governor of Georgia.
Moses Alexander, governor of Idaho.
James P. Goodrich, governor of Indiana.
Arthur Capper, governor of Kansas.
Carl E. Milliken, governor of Maine.
J. A. A. Burnquist, governor of Minnesota.
Samuel Vernon Stewart, governor of Montana.
Lynn J. Frazier, governor of North Dakota.
Robert L. Williams, governor of Oklahoma.
Martin G. Brumbaugh, governor of Pennsylvania.
R. Livingstone Beeckman, governor of Rhode Island.
Richard I. Manning, governor of South Carolina.
Tom C. Rye, governor of Tennessee.
Simon Bamberger, governor of Utah.
John J. Cornwell, governor of West Virginia.
Frank L. Houx, governor of Wyoming.
Frank McClain, lieutenant governor of Pennsylvania, Lancaster, Pa.
Coleman C. Vaughan, secretary of state, Lansing, Mich.
Capt. B. C. Reid, representing State of New Mexico for Gov. Lindsey.

COUNCIL OF NATIONAL DEFENSE.

Mr. and Mrs. Grosevenor Clarkson; Council of National Defense. Washington, D. C.

John S. Cravens, assistant chief of State councils section, Council of National Defense, Pasadena, Cal.

Fred W. Donnelly, member executive committee, Council of National Defense, Newark, N. J.

Arthur H. Fleming, chief of State councils section, Council of National Defense, Washington, D. C.

A. W. MacMahon, State councils section, Council of National Defense, Washington, D. C.

Martha Evans Martin, executive chairman department of educational propaganda, woman's committee, Council of National Defense, Washington, D. C.

Dr. Frank F. Simpson, chief medical section, Council of National Defense, Washington, D. C.

Elliott Dunlap Smith, member of State councils section, Council of National Defense, Washington, D. C.

Miss Mary Boyce Temple, vice chairman of woman's committee, National Council of Defense, Knoxville, Tenn.

Daniel Willard, chairman of advisory committee, Council of National Defense, Washington, D. C.

STATE COUNCILS OF DEFENSE.

L. M. Hooper, chairman of State Council of Defense, Selma, Ala.

Adj. Gen. Lloyd England, chairman of State Council of Defense, Little Rock, Ark.

J. K. Mullen, chairman of State Council of Defense, Denver, Colo.

Richard M. Bissell, chairman of State Council of Defense, Hartford, Conn.

Stanley H. Holmes, chairman Americanization committee, Connecticut State Council of Defense, New Britain, Conn.

William H. Baldwin, chairman District Council of Defense, Washington, D. C.

P. H. Rolfs, chairman State Council of Defense, Gainesville, Fla.

Levy Mayer, member of State Council of Defense, Chicago, Ill.

T. W. Brady, member of State Council of Defense, Anderson, Ind.

A. E. Reynolds, representing Indiana State Council of Defense, Indianapolis, Ind.

Lafayette Young, sr., chairman State Council of Defense, Des Moines, Iowa.

Edward W. Hines, chairman State Council of Defense, Louisville, Ky.

Gen. Francis E. Waters, chairman State Council of Defense, Baltimore, Md.

F. M. Mumford, chairman State Council of Defense, Columbia, Mo.

Richard L. Metcalfe, member of State Council of Defense, Omaha, Nebr.

John B. Jameson, chairman State Council of Defense, Concord, N. H.

Dr. Calvin N. Kendall, State commissioner of education, representing chairman of State Council of Defense, Newark, N. J.

Secundino Romero, chairman State Council of Defense, Las Vegas, N. Mex.

D. H. Hill, chairman State Council of Defense, Raleigh, N. C.

W. S. Wilson, secretary of North Carolina Council of Defense, Raleigh, N. C.

Thomas Allan Box, secretary of State Council of Defense, Bismarck, N. Dak.

Fred C. Croxton, acting chairman of State Council of Defense, Columbus, Ohio.

Harold T. Clark, chairman Americanization subcommittee, Mayor's War Board, Cleveland, Ohio.

Myron T. Herrick, chairman of Mayor's Advisory War Committee. Cleveland, Ohio.

J. M. Aydelotte, chairman State Council of Defense, Oklahoma City, Okla.

Louis Sadler, executive manager Pennsylvania Committee of Public Safety, Philadelphia, Pa.

J. Ross Hanahan, member of South Carolina State Council of Defense, president and general manager of Planters' Fertilizer and Phosphate Co., Charleston. S. C.

David R. Coker, chairman State Council of Defense, Hartsville, S. C.

L. H. Farnsworth, chairman State Council of Defense, Salt Lake City, Utah.

L. P. Slack, chairman Committee of Public Safety, Montpelier, Vt.

D. J. S. Evans, representing Hon. Magnus Swenson, chairman of Wisconsin Council of Defense.

J. R. Astin, member of State Council of Defense, Military Affairs, Bryan, Tex.

Alexander Whiteside, chairman subcommittee on patriotic activities among the foreign-born, Massachusetts Committee of Public Safety, Boston, Mass.

CHAMBERS OF COMMERCE, TRADE, AND OTHER ASSOCIATIONS.

Robert Newton Lynch, vice president and general manager of San Francisco Chamber of Commerce. San Francisco, Cal.

George E. Crawford, president Chamber of Commerce, Bridgeport, Conn.

George S. Hawley, manager the Manufacturers' Association of the City of Bridgeport (Inc.), Bridgeport. Conn.

George E. Bradford, president Chamber of Commerce, Bridgeport. Conn.

George M. Graham, chairman of National Automobile Chamber of Commerce (Inc.), Washington, D. C.

W. T. Galliher, president Washington Board of Trade, Washington, D. C.

Samuel Gompers, president American Federation of Labor, Washington, D. C.

E. C. Faber, manager American Electric Railway Association, War Board, Washington, D. C.

C. E. Hoyt, chairman War Service Board, American Foundrymen's Association of Cleveland, Washington, D. C.

Joseph Mayper, National Americanization Committee, New York City, Committee on Public Information, Washington, D. C.

W. B. Megear, president Chamber of Commerce, Wilmington, Del.

H. J. McGirr, president Boise Commercial Club, Boise, Idaho.

Sherman T. Edwards, president American Feed Manufacturers' Association, Chicago, Ill.

Lucius Teter, president Chicago Association of Commerce, Chicago, Ill.

William Butterworth, director Chamber of Commerce, Moline, Ill.

Samuel Woolner, jr., president Peoria Association of Commerce, Peoria, Ill.

Earl Stimson, first vice president American Railway Engineering Association, Chicago, Ill.

W. L. Petrikin, vice president United States Sugar Manufacturing Association, Chicago, Ill.

Lajos Steiner, commissioner for the agricultural colonization of resident immigrants, Chicago, Ill.

M. H. Broderick, president American Boiler Manufacturers' Association, Muncie, Ind.

A. Clemens, president Chamber of Commerce, Des Moines, Iowa.

Henry T. Hooper, president Chamber of Commerce, Portland, Me.

W. B. Moore, executive secretary Chamber of Commerce, Portland, Me.
B. Howell Griswold, president of Baltimore Board of Trade, Baltimore, Md.
William H. Matthai, president Merchants and Manufacturers' Association of Baltimore, Baltimore, Md.
Harry I. Thayer, president New England Shoe & Leather Association, Boston, Mass.
A. F. Bemis, chairman National Association of Bag Manufacturers, Boston, Mass.
George E. Foss, secretary Springfield Chamber of Commerce, Springfield, Mass.
D. Chauncey Brewer, president North American Civic League for Immigrants, the Industrial Committee, Boston, Mass.
F. L. Locke, Boston Young Men's Christian Union, Boston, Mass.
C. M. Culver, Employers' Association of Detroit, Detroit, Mich.
E. Walton Schmidt, assistant secretary Detroit Board of Commerce, Detroit, Mich.
Harry A. Armstrong, vice president Duluth Commercial Club, Duluth, Minn.
Franklin D. Crabbs, president of Chamber of Commerce, Kansas City, Mo.
Charles C. George, president Omaha Chamber of Commerce, Omaha, Nebr.
Louis Sherwood, president Jersey City Chamber of Commerce, Jersey City, N. J.
Christian P. Tietje, president Chamber of Commerce, Hoboken, N. J.
Samuel Weill, president National Association of Clothiers, Rochester, N. Y.
E. Harold Cluett, president Chamber of Commerce, Troy, N. Y.
Archer A. Landon, president Chamber of Commerce, Buffalo, N. Y.
Robert Grier Cooke, president the Fifth Avenue Association, Inc., New York City.
H. C. Ansorge, president American Clothing Manufacturers' Association, New York City.
William Fellowes Morgan, president New York City Merchants' Association, New York City.
Charleton A. Chase, president Association of Manufacturers and Merchants, Syracuse, N. Y.
Henry MacDonald, director general, Mayor's Committee on National Defense, New York City.
Miss Frances A. Kellor, assistant to chairman, National Americanization Committee, New York City.
Lionel Sutro, acting chairman committee on commercial education, Chamber of Commerce of the State of New York, New York City.
Dr. William H. Goraline, directing speakers in industries, Chamber of Commerce, Rochester, N. Y.
Charles R. Towson, industrial secretary, International Y. M. C. A., New York, N. Y.
J. R. Webster, chairman of Americanization committee, Rochester Chamber of Commerce, Rochester, N. Y.
Duke W. Smith, president Cincinnati Chamber of Commerce, Cincinnati, Ohio.
C. A. Otis, president Chamber of Commerce, Cleveland, Ohio.
Gus Ohlinger, president Toledo Commerce Club, Toledo, Ohio.
F. A. Seiberling, director Chamber of Commerce, Akron, Ohio.
James C. Reilly, president Lowell Board of Trade, Lowell, Mass.
W. S. Horner, president National Association Sheet and Tin Plate Manufacturers, Pittsburgh, Pa.
Ernest T. Trigg, president Chamber of Commerce, Philadelphia, Pa.
Walter P. Miller, chairman Americanization committee, Chamber of Commerce, Philadelphia, Pa.

T. F. Green, War Council, Providence Chamber of Commerce, Providence, R. I.
R. Goodwyn Rhett, president Chamber of Commerce of the United States of America, Peoples Office Building, Charleston, S. C.
John A. Law, president American Cotton Manufacturers' Association, Spartanburg, S. C.
Thaddeus Lake, president of Chamber of Commerce, Spokane, Wash.

INDUSTRIES.

Lucien N. Brunswig, president Brunswig Drug Co., Los Angles, Cal.
H. VanMater, president National Fuel Co., Denver, Colo.
C. C. Dawson, of the Great Western Sugar Co., Denver, Colo.
T. H. Devine, of the American Beet Sugar Co., Pueblo, Colo.
Howard Elliott, president of New York, New Haven & Hartford R. R. Co., New Haven, Conn.
C. B. Whittelsey, president of the Hartford Rubber Works Co., Hartford, Conn.
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Richard H. Aishton, president Chicago & Northwestern R. R. Co., Chicago, Ill.
Hale Holden, president Chicago, Burlington & Quincy R. R. Co., Chicago, Ill.
.. E. Gorman, chief executive officer, Chicago, Rock Island & Pacific Ry. Co. Chicago, Ill.
B. L. Winchell, director of traffic, Union Pacific System, Chicago, Ill.
Richard T Crane, president Crane Co., 836 South Michigan Avenue, Chicago, Ill.
R. W. Campbell, general counsel for Illinois Steel Co., Chicago, Ill.
Robert J. Young, manager of department of safety and relief, Illinois Steel Co., Chicago, Ill.
W. F. Hypes, Marshall Field Co., Chicago, Ill.
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S. Harold Greene, president of Lockwood, Greene & Co., Boston, Mass.
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G. F. Quinby, representing Frederic O. Hood, president Hood Rubber Co., Watertown, Mass.
Maj. B. A. Franklin, vice president Strathmore Paper Co., Mittineague, Mass.
A. R. Demory, vice president of Timken-Detroit Axle Co., Detroit, Mich.
F. S. Bigler, vice president, treasurer, and general manager Michigan Bolt and Nut Works, Detroit, Mich.
Dr. S. S. Marquis, sociological director, Ford Motor Co., Detroit, Mich.
F. F. Beall, vice president Packard Motor-Car Co., Detroit, Mich.
E. F. Kearney, president Wabash Railway Co., St. Louis, Mo.
David A. Marks, president Continental Portland Cement Co., St. Louis, Mo.
Arthur T. Morey, assistant to president Commonwealth Steel Co., St. Louis, Mo.
John Gillie, general manager Anaconda Copper Mining Co., Butte, Mont.
F. L. Loree, president Delaware & Hudson Co., New York.
George A. Cullen, passenger traffic agent, Delaware, Lackawanna & Western R. R. Co.. New York City.
DeWitt D. Barlow, vice president Atlantic, Gulf & Pacific Co., New York City.

Raymond B. Price, United States Rubber Co., New York City.
W. S. Mallory, president Edison Portland Cement Co., New York City.
Carl F. Lomb, president Bausch & Lomb Optical Co., Rochester, N. Y.
F. N. Hoffstot, president Pressed Steel Car Co., 24 Broad Street, New York City.
E. A. S. Clarke, president Lackawanna Steel Co., 2 Rector Street, New York City.
W. H. Woodin, president American Car & Foundry Co., New York City.
A. B. Schultz, secretary New Jersey Zinc Co., 55 Wall Street, New York City.
A. J. Porter, president Shredded Wheat Co., Niagara, N. Y.
C. L. Close, manager of bureau of safety and sanitation, United States Steel Corporation, New York City.
Henry D. Miles, president Buffalo Foundry & Machine Co., Buffalo, N. Y.
Felix M. Warburg, care of Kuhn, Loeb & Co., Wall Street, New York.
Gano Dunn, the J. G. White Engineering Corporation, New York City.
J. R. de la Torre Bueno, General Chemical Co., New York City.
U. S. Bethell, president New York Telephone Co., New York City.
H. F. Teff, representing Newcomb Carlton, president Western Union Telegraph Co., Washington, D. C.
Allen T. Burns, Carnegie Corporation, New York City.
John A. Perkins, works manager, Harmony Mills, Cohoes, N. Y.
A. C. Bedford, president of Standard Oil Co., New York City.
P. A. Hewlett, representing J. E. Keperley, vice president and general manager, Curtiss Aeroplane & Motor Co., Buffalo, N. Y.
W. E. Miner, treasurer Atlas Portland Cement Co., New York City.
Joseph Alling, president Alling Cory Co., Rochester, N. Y.
F. M. Chase, vice president Lehigh Valley Coal Co., New York City.
F. W. Keough, editor American Industries, New York City.
C. McCullough, jr., vice president and general manager, Lackawanna Steel Co., Buffalo, N. Y.
Charles R. Sickels, New York City.
C. J. Welch, United States Tire Co., New York City.
Thomas McDonald, Carnegie Steel Co., Youngstown, Ohio.
Charles R. Hook, vice president American Rolling Mill Co., Middletown, Ohio.
H. L. Round, vice president Republic Iron & Steel Co., Youngstown, Ohio.
Guy E. Norwood, president Republic Rubber Corporation, Youngstown, Ohio.
A. B. Jones, second vice president Rubber Association of America, Akron, Ohio.
H. T. Waller, bureau of education, B. F. Goodrich Co., Akron, Ohio.
Thomas Devlin, president Thomas Devlin Manufacturing Co., Philadelphia, Pa.
Samuel Rea, president Pennsylvania Railroad, Philadelphia, Pa.
Alba B. Johnson, president Baldwin Locomotive Works, Philadelphia, Pa.
C. H. Schlacke, general manager Midvale Steel & Ordnance Co., Chester, Pa.
Charles L. Taylor, director United States Steel Corporation, Pittsburgh, Pa.
W. A. Luce, assistant general manager Ellsworth Collieries Co., Pittsburgh, Pa.
E. E. Bach, director sociological department the Ellsworth Collieries Co., Ellsworth, Pa.
George J. Baldwin, chairman American International Shipbuilding Corporation, Philadelphia, Pa.
Maurice Fels, Philadelphia, Pa.
David Kirschbaum, president A. B. Kirschbaum Co., Philadelphia, Pa.
A. B. Farquhar, president A. B. Farquhar & Co. (Ltd.), York, Pa.
Paul Thompson, fifth vice president, United Gas Improvement Co., Philadelphia, Pa.
Charles F. Conn, president Giant Portland Cement Co., Philadelphia, Pa.

W. Lucien Scaife, Scaife Foundry & Machine Co., Pittsburgh, Pa.
E. M. Herr, president Westinghouse Machine Co., East Pittsburgh, Pa.
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Edward T. Stotesbury, president Philadelphia & Reading Co., Philadelphia, Pa.
Dr. Albert E. McKinley, McKinley Publishing Co., Philadelphia, Pa.
Charles W. Brown, president Pittsburgh Plate Glass Co., Pittsburgh, Pa.
J. B. Rider, vice president and general manager Pressed Steel Car Co., Pittsburgh, Pa.
C. A. Buck, Bethlehem Steel Co., Bethlehem, Pa.
J. M. Lockhart, president Lockhart Iron & Steel Co., Pittsburgh, Pa.
F. P. Palen, vice president Newport News Shipbuilding & Dry Dock Co., Newport News, Va.
Decatur Axtell, Chesapeake & Ohio Ry. Co., Richmond, Va.
Dr. Sigfried, Coal Co., Bear Creek, Wis.
E. E. White, general manager E. E. White Coal Co., Stotesbury, W. Va.
Edward Zaremba, Zaremba Co., Niagara Life Building, Buffalo, N. Y.
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Arthur S. Somers, president Board of Education, New York City.
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Sara Elkus, board of education, New York City.
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Roswell Page, second auditor of state, Richmond, Va.
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I. C. White, assistant geologist, Morgantown, Wis.
Miss Clara Zaremba, Buffalo, N. Y.
Gen. Louis T. Bryant, commissioner of labor, Statehouse, Trenton, N. J.
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PROCEEDINGS.

ADDRESS OF FRANKLIN K. LANE,

Secretary of the Interior.

GOVERNORS, LADIES, and GENTLEMEN: We are not gathered to speak bitterly of others, or to speak boastfully of ourselves. We have come to talk together as Americans, to find out how there might be made a greater America, a nobler America. We see clearly now what we have not so clearly seen before, that a democracy must have a self-protecting sense as well as a creative spirit. We have lived in the full expression of the most liberal and idealistic political philosophy. There has been nothing of paternalism in our Government. We have conceived it to be our high privilege to open this continent to those who came seeking the advantages and the beauties of a new land in which the individual mind and heart could have free and full development. The Statue of Liberty enlightening the world at the main gateway of our country has been symbolic of our national attitude. We have believed, and we still believe, that liberty contains a magic healing power for many of the woes of man; that if we can turn its rays upon those troubles which have caused bitterness between peoples, the world will be made sweeter, safer, and saner; but in the ecstasy of our enthusiasm over the discovery of this curative agent which we had thought a panacea, we have overlooked our own responsibility. We have thought it was enough to say "This is a land of freedom and equal opportunity," without teaching what these terms meant. "Let us keep our hands off; let each man go his own way; let all things be thought, said, and done which each may choose to think or say or do; and sooner or later, by the conflict of minds and acts, truth will prevail." That has been our thought.

We know now that there is no such thing as Americanism unless Americanism is in our souls. We have got to feel it first, and then we have got to put it out among other people. We have heard talk of Americanization before, and what has it meant? It has meant the boycott. We want now to give a new significance to that word. We want it to mean help; we want it to mean sympathy; we want it to mean understanding; we want it to mean largeness of view and not smallness or narrowness. We want it to mean, not patronage, but the largest human fellowship. We want that word to be translated into terms of wages for men, of living conditions for men; of an America that will mean something to the man that comes across the water from the other side, who has come to us with a different understanding of the word " liberty " from that which we have had.

The native Americans, those men into whom the traditions of liberty have been sunk by experience of generations, are primarily responsible for whatever indifference has been shown by this Nation in the education and enlightenment of those whom they have invited to these shores. Upon us is the responsibility, and that should be the keynote of this gathering to-day—ours the responsibility and ours the opportunity. You men represent great bodies of industry, railroads, factories, foundries, and works. To you this question is vital because the men that you have are men that can not be exploited indefinitely. They are men who must feel that their interest is your interest; that America means something to them more than an abstraction, and I am proud to see within the last few days a growing feeling, expressed concretely in favor of a larger justice for those who work for us and with us.

There stands before your eyes to-day the example of Russia. The greatest disappointment of the year has been the downfall of Russia. And yet downfall is not the precise word that should be used. The crumpling of Russia is perhaps a better expression, for I can not believe that Russia is destroyed and that that great nation of a hundred and eighty million people, with seven thousand miles of straight-away territory, can be crushed out of existence by the iron heel of the Kaiser like some stray beetle. A race that is so near to its beginning can not be so near to its end. There will be another Russia some day, a wiser, a more intelligent, a better educated, a more intensely national Russia.

The truth as we now see it is that Russia was not a nation. But why did Russia fall? Because of her ignorance. Eighty per cent of her people could neither read nor write. There was no leadership in Russia. There was no central thought in Russia. There was nothing around which the people could crystallize, once the Czar had fallen. He was the leader of the church, and he was the leader of the people. He was removed, and then they could visualize no other leadership, and so Russia bled as no other country has ever bled. With six million dead upon the battlefield, Russia turned from a political revolution to an economic dream. It was like a child that reached out of the window for a butterfly, and reaching too far fell out and was crushed. The people of Russia are kindly, generous, catholic, sweet in nature. They had a sense of neighborliness, but they had no sense of nationality. They have never acted as a nation. They did not know the Russian nation. They had followed their leaders. They had done what they were told, and when the leaders were gone they took up the belief that the revolution meant that a good and glorious time was coming, in which all of the land would be divided; and so these men who stood along the eastern front went home to get a share of that land, and left us upon the western front to make the fight to save civilization.

Russia abandoned orderly processes within her own country and abandoned her allies on the outside and the great cause of humanity, but we must not be harsh with a people who can not read and who can not write—a people who have no means of knowing what democracy is. Is it to be wondered at that they thought when our commission went to the other side that it was composed of representatives of all the great interests of the country, and that they spoke of this Nation as a capitalistic republic, and the men who were sent as our commissioners abroad were regarded not as commissioners of a free nation but as the representatives of great capital? And by word of mouth this report went through the land, until those people had difficulty in being heard by this nation that we had come to save. We offered them our help and they said, "We have come to know that America is not what on paper she represents herself to be; she is a land where the plain people are exploited for the benefit of the few who are up above, and we propose to push ourselves up through that floor and come out into the light of economic freedom ourselves." And so, spurning the hand that we held out, Russia went down. She passed from a political revolution into economic anarchy, as well as political anarchy. But I am not without the hope that there will come a new Russia. What we want to know is, Are we in danger of any kind of Russianization? Is there the basis for any kind of insidious suggestion here? Are we alive to the needs of our present conditions? Russia will be herself some day, and we shall be proud to welcome her and grasp her by the hand; but we wish to prepare now against the possibility of any sentiment being aroused that will make it possible that that ignorance which dominated Russia to her destruction for the time being shall prevail in the United States.

What is it to be loyal to America? We are to preach Americanism. You are the prophets of a new day. You are the missionaries who are to go forth. What is the story of America? Is it told in the flag? The flag is but a symbol. It represents hopes and achievements and longings and fears, but the flag is not America. The story of America is not told by telling the story of the landing of the Pilgrim Fathers, or by telling the story of the advance of the immigrant across the continent in conquering this country. It is not told by telling the story of the battles of Yorktown or Gettysburg or Santiago or Manila. It is not told by telling of our great inventions and our great inventors. Whitney and Edison. It is not told by outlining the philosophy of William James or Emerson. It is not told by the poetry of Poe. Longfellow, and Lowell. All these are expressions of the American spirit of adventure, of purposeful searching after the thing that is better. But America is an aspiration. America is a spirit. America is something mystical which lives in the heavens. It is the constant and continuous searching of the human heart for the thing that is better.

You are men of iron and steel, and wood and copper. You are men who deal with these material things which go to make up the great prosperity of this country, but fundamentally each one of you is a religious leader. Each one of you has in his soul a mystical quantity which represents your Americanism. There is something bigger and finer in everyone of us than the individual himself. That thing that is finer is the thing that prompts us to do the work that we are doing; and why are we working; why are we striving; why are we fighting on the other side to-day? Because of a divine dissatisfaction within our own souls. We are compelled to move on and on by something that we know not of. That is the essence of Americanism. Take out of our hearts the belief that the Battle Hymn of the Republic is true, that God's truth is marching on, and you defeat America; but until you take that from us, I care not what the battles of the world may show—the spirit of America, the real America can not be beaten in battle.

I want to get into your hearts, if I can at this time, a passion for Americanism, not only because Americanism is the spirit of our country, but because Americanism is the most advanced spirit that has come to man's spirit from above.

There are great systems in contest at this time; the system of the man who orders and is obeyed by the man below, and the system that we have set out, where the man below, makes his own future. Russia made her mistakes because in the time that was given her to make herself, she did not preserve herself. We were blessed by leaders in our early days of political revolution; we were blessed by men who saw that there must be coalescence and there must be conservatism; that there must be time for the making of a nation; that we must grow and evolve into nationality; that traditions must be formed; that men must come together in spirit and understanding before there can be any such thing as a nation. So we are here for the making of a more perfect nation; a nation in which there will be harmony between the capitalists and the workman, if you please; a nation in which there will be harmony between the man who is born on this soil and the man who is not born on this soil. Never forget that the man who is not born here may have within his soul the very essence of Americanism, and may have had it long before he ever saw New York harbor or the Golden Gate.

The people that I love, the people that make a common nation with me, are the people into whose eyes I can look with frankness and directness and know that what they say they mean. They are people whom I understand, whom I instinctively understand, who speak my language. The people that I love, and the people who make the land that I love, are people who can put their hands down into the soil of this country and take their hands out and smell that soil, and say "That is ours; we are identified with it; we are tied to it, and we love it, and will fight and sacrifice for it." The people that I love and the land that I love is the land where my boy's dreams of his future may come true; a land in which he can realize the aspirations of his heart. The land that I love is the land in which my spirit, my life, my ambition can have expression. Where I can feel that, although I may be of the most humble origin, yet opportunity will open before me; so that I can rise, not merely to place and to power, but so that I can rise to the fullest expression of manhood, whatever manhood there may be in me; so that I am not held down, so that I am not oppressed, so that no kaiser or czar can put his hand upon me and compel me to a course that is contrary to the right impulse of my nature; so with my neighbor as myself, that I may regard myself as rightfully entitled to develop every possibility and opportunity there is in me to serve my fellows and serve myself and serve mankind. We are coming to that great philosophy. It is a philosophy that reaches into economics and into the social order just as much as it does into our political conditions.

Gentlemen of great enterprise, do not think for one moment that you are to pass by within the next few years with indifference the immigrant who has come here or the man who has been here generation after generation. There is a rising tide of demand that man shall have a more perfect opportunity for self-expression. Some of you know it. I look over this audience and I see men who have realized this for years. You must think in terms of manhood, and you must be able to give expression to the impulses and the sentiments and sympathies that are in you. Do you understand what that means? It means that you must not patronize the man who works for you. It means that democracy, in essence, is that every man has a chance. It means that primarily—and that is our first consideration here, perhaps—the very thing that is essential to be done now is that we shall put into the hands of every man born in this country, or not born in this country, who is here to-day, the tools by which he can open the archives of Americanism; by which he can know what the President writes; by which he can know what other nations do; by which he is not bound and fettered by the language that he originally speaks, but by which he can have opened to him all the opportunities of our great newspapers, of our state papers, and of all those means by which enlightenment comes to man. Liberty enlightening the world! We are the bearers of that torch. It must be a human-torch, lighting the path down which will come a finer civilization. It must be a torch for the curing of the nations. It must be a light that will be broad and not narrow, catholic and not insolent, sympathetic, human, essentially divine.

We are trying a great experiment in the United States. Can we gather together people of different races, creeds, conditions, and aspirations, who can be merged into one? If we can not do this we will fail, indeed we will have already failed. If we do this we will produce the greatest of all nations and a new race that will long hold a compelling place in the world. It is well, therefore, that we come together at such times of stress as this, and we should have come together long since, and put our heads to the problem as to what are the initial steps in bringing about that harmony within our country which will give it meaning, purpose, and cohesion. We should not be moved to this by fear. There is nothing to fear. Our wars have been fought by men of foreign birth—Irishmen, and Germans, and Swedes, and Scotchmen. We see their names every day now in the list of those who are dead on the battlefields of France. There is no such thing as an American race, excepting the Indian. We are fashioning a new people. We are doing the unprecedented thing in saying that Slav, Teuton, Celt, and the other races that make up the civilized world are capable of being blended here, and we say this upon the theory that blood alone does not control the destiny of man; that out of his environment, his education, the food that he eats, the neighbors that he has, the work that he does, there can be formed and realized a spirit, an ideal which will master his blood. In this sense we are all internationalists.

Now there are several things which we have come upon recently which seem to those of us who have not been wise to be discoveries. The first is that we have a great body of our own people, five and a half millions, who can not read or write the language of this country. That language is English. And these are not all of foreign birth. A million and a half are native born. The second is that we are drafting into our Army men who can not understand the orders that are given them to read. The third is that our man power is deficient because our education is deficient. The fourth is that we ourselves have failed to see America through the eyes of those who have come to us. We have failed to realize why it was that they came here and what they sought. We have failed to understand their definition of liberty.

To be an American is not to be the embodiment of conceit as to all things that are fundamental in America, or to be satisfied with things as they are or to let things drift. Germany has made herself a composite, compact, purposeful nation by methods of education as well as by authority. We can make ourselves a composite, purposeful nation and impose no authority other than the compelling influence of affection, sympathy, understanding, and education. Out of this conference should come not a determination to make more hard or difficult the way of those who do not speak or read our tongue, but a determination to deal in a catholic and sympathetic spirit with those who can be led to follow in the way of this Nation, and as to those others who can not, other procedure must be applied.

It is now a year since we entered into this war, and our men are standing shoulder to shoulder with Frenchmen on their right and Englishmen on their left, holding the line that is to save civilization. The war is coming nearer and nearer to us each day. Each morning we turn with anxious and with proud eyes to read the list of our own heroes who have made the supreme sacrifice. In a few days more this list will swell from a few short inches into continuing columns and pages. Then we will first clearly see the horror of this war. And then there will surge through our souls a passion of indignation and outrage that will close our ears to talk of peace and fix our will to win. For now nearly four years we have been looking afar off at a series of unprecedented battles the least of which brought down more men than served on both sides at Gettysburg or Waterloo. All of northern France is one battlefield. There is hardly a town, hardly a little river, that is not already sanctified as the field of some battle fought for liberty, and this thing will go on. This thing is not done. This thing is still a challenge to us. The Emperor of Germany has given notice to the world that he regards this as the greatest of all of the battles, the crowning battle, by taking charge of the troops himself. He will overwhelm the French, the Americans, and the English, and keep on to Amiens, sweep on by wave after wave. There is no picture that man has ever painted that tells a more horrible story than the events of the last 10 days. Men in solid ranks come up against the encircling line of guns and rifles, and the front rank falls, but there is a rank behind, and that advances, and that one falls, but there is still another one behind that, and that one comes forward. And so by added increments of death the Kaiser wins his way. But his way is not yet won. Von Hindenburg has said that the first act was done in the great play of German history. Ah, the first act may be won, but the first act never tells what the last act may be.

We are to have a part in that last act, and it will be a noble part. They have been fighting great battles on the other side. Ah, yes, but great battles, as Ludendorff says—great battles do not mean victory. It is the last battle, it is the final charge, which determines which side will win. Remember when you look over the paper to-day and your eye moistens a bit—remember that that is a thin line there, a thin line to meet battle, but I believe it will not break. It is a thin line, but remember there are Scotchmen in that line, Scotchmen from Glasgow and from Edinburgh that do not surrender; and there are Englishmen in that line; Englishmen from all of the manufacturing towns of England and from the far north country, down to the sweet Surrey; Englishmen who stood off Napoleon for 22 years; and there are Irishmen in that line, gallant Irishmen, who are fighting to-day that an Ireland may be saved to which will come home rule. What is her prospect and her dream unless they win to-day? What is Ireland's hope? What can be her hope? If the allies are defeated will she be treated any better than Lithuania, or Poland, or Belgium? Will her babies go as the Belgian babies, like wild horses after a battle, roaming up and down the country, hand in hand, eating the roots of trees, digging up whatever they can? Lost children, motherless, fatherless children? Oh, and there are Australians in that line, and Canadians, too—men who do not want to fight and who do not love war any more than we do, but who can make it just as well. And there are Frenchmen in that line—Frenchmen from Verdun. Can one say more? They stand steadfast, they are sure. For four years they have seen this on-coming host. It is a thin line that they have held, but we are weaving into that line our boys in khaki, so that it will be a thick line. Ah, yes, the last act is not played, but it will be played, and in that day we will be proud of the part that we played. We want no power. We do not care for power. But America is valueless if Germany becomes the one dominant power of this world. And against that possibility being realized your boys and my boy must give up their dreams, give up their ambitions, give up their lives, if need be, so that that horror may not spread. And what are we, who are denied the opportunity to make the supreme sacrifice, what are we to do? Let us take a strong resolution that the America to which those boys will return will be a land in which there will be a surer justice and finer sympathy, a greater love for all mankind, a realization more full of the hopes of our fathers, and of the hopes that are within our own breasts. Let us make America more worthy of our own dreams. And to-day I hope is the beginning of that campaign. We shall make America better worth while to Americans and of higher service to the world.

ADDRESS OF MR. ELLIOTT D. SMITH.

Gentlemen, I have been asked to explain, for the benefit of those who are here, who are not directly connected with State Councils of Defense, the relationship of the State Council of Defense system to Americanization, and more especially to the Americanization work of the Bureau of Education of the Department of the Interior.

As many of you probably know, State councils of defense have been created, either by acts of State legislatures or by proclamation of the State governor, in every State of the Union. They have been designated as the official war emergency organization of the State. As such, they are charged with conducting all of the war activity of the States not directly within the fields of the established executive departments. In many of the States they include the members of these executive departments, and thus include that work, in addition to their other functions. Besides this State position, they are the official representatives in each State, of the Council of National Defense. They conduct certain national war programs transmitted to them by the Council of National Defense.

In addition to these two governmental functions, they have been designated by the Council of National Defense as the official organization in each State to correlate and centralize all voluntary activity relating to the war. They are the coördinating agency for the war work of all voluntary societies and associations, and they have also been asked by the Council of National Defense to supervise the solicitation of funds by these associations for war purposes. They are, however, essentially State bodies. Their origin is traced to State law. They exercise complete independence in all local matters and in the adoption of national programs to local conditions. They represent the Council of National Defense, but they are not controlled by it. As a result, there is a considerable variation in the form of the organization and in the success that they have achieved.

In every State in the Union, with the exception of two of the very smallest States, these State councils have created in each county or similar area a county council of defense, and at the present time they are engaged in a great majority of the States in creating a still smaller system. This smaller system of councils in the small communities, usually called community councils, exists in school districts and in townships, precincts, and smaller areas. These local and sublocal councils exercise the authority that accrues to them as the representative of the State council in their jurisdiction. They secure the means of connecting the State council system, and the State council system correlates and coordinates with the individual citizens and small associations.

On February 12 the Council of National Defense, at the request of the Bureau of Education of the Department of the Interior, sent to the State councils advance sheets of one of its bulletins, asking them to appoint a committee on Americanization, to perform two important functions: First, to assist the United States Bureau of Education in carrying out its national program. Second, to conduct and put through a State program for Americanization, for education.

This bulletin contained an outline of the fundamental points in this National and State program. One of the most fundamental is the special request that the State council of defense shall bring together and bring out the work of all of the voluntary agencies. By this bulletin, the several State councils of defense were each designated in their State as the one official representative of the United States Bureau of Education in the State, for its Americanization work as a war emergency measure.

The Bureau of Education is now engaged in preparing a follow-up bulletin containing the first steps in that program., These first steps consist in the establishment of a war information service, for the purpose of bringing full knowledge of our aims and ideals in this war, of the relation of America to all other races and all matters that concern the alien and the foreign born in America, home to the individual aliens so that they will no longer be a prey to anti-American propaganda on the part of German agents, and to ignorance and fear.

Now, the Council of National Defense stands in regard to Americanization as a transmitting agency only. It has also transmitted to the State councils, on behalf of the committee on public information, a request that they assist that committee in its efforts to prepare a mailing list of all Americanization agencies and all associations of foreign-born citizens for the purpose of spreading through those agencies and associations, propaganda and information relating to the war. It hopes within a short time to issue to the State councils a bulletin, similarly requesting their assistance on behalf of the Bureau of Naturalization of the Department of Labor in its work.

The State Council of Defense will thus become, not only the correlating agency for work of Americanization societies, but will center in itself work representing the three departments of the Federal Government most concerned with Americanization—the Department of the Interior Bureau of Education, the Comittee on Public Information, and the Department of Labor Bureau of Naturalization.

The importance of the work which the State councils are called upon to perform, the importance of their position in that work, and the importance of their assuming this duty with the greatest possible seriousness and putting all that they have of authority into this work can best be shown merely by running over the position which they have in this regard. They represent the State Government, and in most States they represent the Americanization work of the State Government. They represent on behalf of the State Government and the Council of National Defense, and the Bureau of Education, the centralizing agency for all voluntary Americanization work, especially relating to education. They are the one official war emergency Americanization agency of the Bureau of Education. We hope that there will be in a short time an agency of the Department of Labor. They are assisting and acting to that extent as a representative of the Committee on Public Information in its war information work.

Secretary Lane. Now, I would like those who are here representing State councils to express their views as to how this work can be done at home, in their own State, and what more can be done so as to bring about the end that we have in view, giving to the people who are here a better realization of what America is. If there are any members of the council who do not know what can be done at home, or how it can be done, who have tried methods and have succeeded or have failed, we will be glad to hear from them.

Mr. Roswell Page, of Virginia. The newly elected governor of Virginia, Gov. Westmoreland Davis, on receiving the resignation of the members of the State Council of Defense, formed by the former governor, called to his assistance the State officers, and formed them into a State Council of Defense. The Council of Defense has divided the work up into this order: They have given to the adjutant general, all matters connected with the Army and Navy. They have given to the superintendent of education all matters connected with the schools and the whole school system, and they have given to the commissioner of labor all matters connected with the great working elements of the State. They have given to the commissioner of agriculture the department of agriculture and to others the work of their special departments. To myself was given the department of the bar and bench and the clergy for organization through the bishops, through the judges, through the clergy, through the Baptist associations, through the Methodist conferences, and through the schools. Within the past week a member of the State Council of Defense made a tour with the local superintendent of schools through a small county in Virginia in which both Patrick Henry and Henry Clay were born. He went from one school to another telling the children what the thrift system is, what a war-saving stamp is, and what a Liberty bond is. He urged every child present to go home and ask his parents to allow him to buy a thrift stamp, and then when they got enough of them, to buy war-saving stamps and even Liberty bonds. As a result there were not enough thrift stamps and war-saving stamps in that district to supply the demand. That is but an instance of the activity of the members of the Virginia State Council of Defense. The governor of Virginia regrets very much not to be able to be here, and he asked me to come and say that Virginia may be trusted to do whatever is necessary. Virginia will do the best that she can do.

Mr. Levi Mayer, of Chicago. Illinois has before her one of the great problems of this country in dealing with the foreign element, and the problem has not yet been entirely overcome. We believe that drastic measures may be necessary for those who can neither read nor write the English language, and feel that they are still at home notwithstanding their transplantation to this country. Education is of slow development. By the time its processes have taken root, we hope and believe that the war will be over and the allies, of course, victorious.

We have in Chicago alone about 500,000 Germans, and we have districts which are purely foreign—Norwegian or Swedish or Bohemian or Russian Jewish—all of the different nationalities represented in this country. They are as much at home as they were in the countries they came from, except that they know that they are no longer in their native countries, but in Chicago and Illinois.

We should like to have this association consider this suggestion; some of the State legislatures do not meet for a year or two. In Illinois our next session is in January, 1919. It is too slow to accomplish the necessary results through the State legislatures. We believe that the true remedy lies with Congress, because that method is immediate and effective, and, of course, will be carried into quick development and application by the State officials and the State councils of defense.

We should like to have any foreigner in this country denied the right to follow his vocation, whether it be practicing law, or practicing medicine, or carrying brick or mortar, or delivering newspapers, unless before a given date, say July 1, he makes application for his first naturalization papers.

Of course, Mr. Chairman, I do not refer to alien enemies who are not entitled to naturalization, but I refer to the millions in this country who are not alien enemies, but are ignorant of our institutions, or laws, or language, or habits, and our customs. And the way to begin is to begin at once.

Second, the foreign-language newspapers, with all due deference to the views expressed by our illustrious chairman, do need some correcting process. It would not do, Mr. Chairman, to send into these densely populated districts propagandists who, in the language of that particular district, can speak to the people who live there. It is their newspapers that are published morning and afternoon that are preaching the doctrine of ignorance, by keeping enlightenment from their readers. Now, the cure for that is not necessarily the abolition of these foreign-language papers, but a compulsory process which will require them in every issue to have some article written, if you please, by the Bureau of Education, written in English and translated into the foreign tongue, which will begin this continual process at once and thus inculcate into the brains of the readers of these papers the great blessings which you have so graphically, so eloquently, and so truly described.

Those two suggestions represent ideas which I would like to have this gathering, guided by yourself, consider and put into proper resolution and address to the Congress of the United States, rather than to the 48 State legislatures.

SECRETARY LANE. I have no doubt whatever that if this body asks foreign-language newspapers—and I am saying this without knowledge, but upon intuition—that if you ask the foreign-language newspapers of this country to do the very thing that Mr. Mayer has just said, they will do it; that the trouble with us has been that we have not asked them to do these things, and they have taken, in some cases, an attitude of hostility that otherwise we could have led them from. Not that all are loyal at this time, but that they live here and intend to continue to live here, and the editors of the great, great majority are sincerely attached to us. I shall be very glad, indeed, for discussion of this proposition. It is suggested to me that Gov. Bamberger, of Utah, might say a word.

Gov. BAMBERGER. Mr. Chairman, Governors, Ladies and Gentlemen: I landed in New York, at Castle Garden, a boy 14 years of age. In those days I was very particular whom I associated with, in spite of the number of precedents that have been called here this morning, so I chose to come as an immigrant in the hull of the ship. It was safer there than above, you know. Besides, I did not have the price of anything else. I came; and I counted the minutes, the years, the months, and the days until I was 21, and then as soon as I had the opportunity of renouncing the then King of Prussia and swearing allegiance to the Constitution of the United States I did so, and it was one of the greatest privileges in my life. I realized what it meant to have the protection of this great land, that assurance of life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. I finally went into Utah, and Utah gave me the greatest honor that they could bestow upon any man and elected me as its governor. Now, what chance would a boy like myself have had in the old country?

I am trying to show my appreciation of this great Government of ours, the greatest Government on the face of the earth by far, by

speaking for the Liberty Loan. and I have volunteered for the full term, until the 4th of May. I thank God that I have the privilege of showing my loyalty to the people of America by setting example to others, and I hope that I may be able to accomplish some good.

We have a way of sending missionaries abroad in our country from time to time, and when we have sent our boys away, I told the boys " You are now entering upon the grandest mission you have ever attempted to perform; you are going abroad in a short time, and your mission is never to return until the tyrannical Government of Germany has been wiped off the face of the earth."

Mr. SOMERS, chairman of the board of education of New York City. In New York we are doing the best thing that can be done, and we are doing it in the manner that appears to us to lead somewhere to the fruition of a plan such as the Secretary has indicated in his opening address. I sympathize very much with what Mr. Mayer has stated. I want the thought to rest in your minds when you come together this afternoon, with reference to the foreigners who neglect to become citizens, that you may lead a horse to water but you can not force him to drink. If you do force him to drink he will kick just the same if the kick is in his nature. My suggestion is, then, that if we demand from these foreigners that they make application to become citizens of this country, that that will not change the spots of the leopard, if he has spots.

The work, after all, rests in the public school system of America. Our system has failed to develop that kind of Americanism that we have been preaching about for the past 25 years. We have been a good deal like the soothsayers of Rome. We have talked about these things, and when we have got on the street we have laughed at each other. We can not accomplish the aims we have set up to accomplish as a result of the work we have been doing in education. I have never heard in all of my experience of more than a quarter of a century anything more strikingly presented to us of our failure to accomplish what we aimed at than the words of the Secretary of the Interior to-day; and let me say, Mr. Secretary, that so much am I impressed with that address, with the strength, with the foundation upon which it rests, that I hope before this convention adjourns that it will ask the secretary to see to it that a copy of that address is placed in the hands of every school-teacher in the United States as an inspiration.

New York City, many, many years before this horrible catastrophe of war was forced upon the world, took up this question because it saw the need for it. We are, as has been described, at the gateway of the Nation. We get the contributions from all of the countries of the earth. We take them in and some of them we keep among us. Many leave us and go out to the agricultural sections of the Nation.

But those that we keep there have presented a problem to us for years and years, and, concerned with the solution of that problem, we have established education classes in our day schools, continuation classes and special classes in our night schools, for the education of the foreigner. We have divided the administration into three groups. We have concerned ourselves with teaching the illiterate foreigner, teaching him to read and write English and something in elementary civics that he might understand what he ought to know about the institutions of the land to which he came. Then we have organized classes for teaching English to the educated foreigners. You know that many educated men and women come to this country from abroad who do not know our language; and we had that feeling, just as the Secretary has said, that you can always get closer to a man's heart when you look him in the eye and understand what he is saying. The common language after all is the crux—the thing that binds natures together and makes men and women love each other.

Then we have organized groups of classes combining both, bringing the illiterate and the educated foreigner together. Last year, for instance, in New York City we had 617 classes in our evening schools for teaching English to foreigners; 617 classes with an average attendance of 25 to 30, many of them adults. So difficult was the problem to maintain the interest that before the close of the session we were actually compelled to reduce that number to 433, and I want to tell you why. We have found that among many of our adult population there was a disinclination to attend schools and take advantage of the opportunities to be gained there because of the conditions under which these people were living. The father would say, "I shall not stay home and mind the children while my wife, she go to school;" and the wife would say, "I shall not stay home while my husband, he go to school." These are the stories that come to us from our teachers who have gone among these people to interest them in the work of educating themselves. So we were actually compelled to reduce the number from 617, with which we started, to 433 in one year.

We organized a number of special continuation classes. We appropriated last year $16,000 with which to extend this work into the summer evening schools, opening special schools for the summer time which adults might attend and be instructed in the English language. We were able to spend only $5,000 of that money. We simply could not get the people to come. They would not attend our classes.

We have gone further. We have gone into the factories, into the industries, and we have organized classes there among the foreign workers for teaching English to foreigners. I should be ashamed as an American citizen to read to you the list that I have in my mind, of the industries, the firms, some of those who were referred to in Mr. Mayer's discussion—the firms profiteering out of the opportunities that this war gives, who absolutely refused us the chance to organize a class to teach the boys and girls in their employ who can not speak the English language.

We hope, when we go back to New York, to have new inspiration and a deeply religious belief that it is our mission to go among those people and compel them to allow us to enter and educate them. We in New York City doing this work realize the importance of it and the difficulty of it, want your backing, and we want the backing of the Bureau of Education. We want the backing of Congress, if need be. We want legislation that will compel these people to recognize the efforts that are being made by educators throughout the land to Americanize every boy and girl and every man and woman that comes to our shores and hopes to live here and earn his living.

I shall not take up your time with discussing the other war services we have rendered, except briefly to refer to the fact that we have appropriated recently $19,000 with which to equip 1,500 high-school boys to go out into the agricultural school districts of New York State this summer, under high-school teachers, to learn farming, in order that they may help the Government.

The other day we appropriated $7,500 and appointed a director to take charge of school gardens, that the little kids may do something for food production and food conservation, and thus help in a small way to stiffen the arms of the boy who is on the other side, determined to win this war.

I have told you briefly what New York City has been doing for years in the way of Americanizing. I come back to the original proposition, What is the function of the school? It must be planted in the mind and heart of the child, and through the child you must reach the home. We must go into the home and induce the parent to come to night school, to come to summer school, to come to school at any time their duties may permit them to do so, and be instructed in reading and writing the English language, and in the governmental institutions that shower so many blessings upon them.

I could talk to you about other things that crowd into my mind. When you adjourn I want to leave these thoughts with you as contributions of what New York City has already been doing, and we do that without boasting, because we realize it is our religious duty to do that in the interest of the entire nation.

Dr. Finley, commissioner of education, State of New York. Mr. Chairman, may I say that there is a bill before the Legislature of the State of New York requiring the attendance of every minor, every illiterate minor, upon such instruction, and I hope that this body will authorize me to give it support.

Mr. SOMERS. Why can not Mr. Finley include the adults in that measure?

Dr. FINLEY. I shall be glad to if the bill does not.

Secretary LANE. Before adjourning I want to say that a list of questions has been presented to me on matters that should have our consideration. For instance, should a policy of Federal aid for Americanization to the States be adopted? Should this be supplemented by a separate policy of State aid to local communities in cities where a substantial number of foreigners reside? Should compulsory attendance of non-English-speaking and illiterate persons at school be adopted by the States? If so, what ages—16 to 21 years included, or over 21 years?—and a number of other questions, all directly touching this matter; and so in view of the motion that has been made and carried, touching the propositions brought up by Mr. Mayer, I think it would be well if at this time a committee were appointed to frame a program for this afternoon's questions that should be considered, so that we may, as our friend from New York says, concretize, and if you have no objection, without further action, I will ask these gentlemen to serve on that committee: Gov. Stewart, Gov. Manning, Gov. Milliken, Mr. Mayer, Mr. Clark (of Cleveland), Mr. Somers (of New York), Mr. Gompers, Mr. Holden, and Mr. Lynch (of California).

AFTER RECESS.

The conference reassembled at 2 o'clock p. m., after recess, the Hon. Franklin K. Lane presiding.

ADDRESS OF MR. GEORGE CREEL,

Chairman of Committee on Public Information.

One of the most interesting phases of modern warfare is the emphasis that has been placed on psychology—that is, on the recognition of public opinion as a vital factor in attack and in defense. You know it has come to be realized that the real strength of the firing line is not in trench or in barricade, but it is the morale of the civil population from which the fighting force is drawn. It is just as your national union; the resulting cause is just as it stands unanimous behind its leaders, so are you going to get heroism in the trenches; but when they are torn by discontent and disunities, just so you will find the firing line failing.

This fight for public opinion is the business of the Committee on Public Information. We call it educational work. This committee does not only work here in the United States, but in every country in the whole world. There is not a great capital in which we do not have our visitors. We have taken the wires; our wired messages of 100 words a day from Tuckerton to the Eiffel Tower; this message goes to London, to Scandinavia, to Holland, to Darien, and to Spain; it is taken out of the air and reaches all over Europe; from Pekin we get it into Russia. We send it into all these capitals, and we hire theaters for pictures setting forth the war program of the United States and our industries. As an illustration of the work in Russia, our men reach from Petrograd to Vladivostok; we have a great printing establishment right on the ground, people who know the Russian character; we have eight theaters in Petrograd and eight in Moscow showing our pictures, teaching them about America and Americanism. We get them across the line into every one of the Austro-Hungarian districts; we go into the Silesian Capes and try to drive home the lesson, to the Bohemian, to the Slovak, to the Polish Russian, to the Magyar, all the unhappy people held under the German yoke. To them we try to prove that every effort they make for the defense of Germany to-day rivets their chains, and that what they are fighting for really is their own souls' damnation. We go to the prison camps; there are a million and a half prisoners in Russia, and all our speakers try to bring home to the men the meaning of America, the purpose of America, the purity of our ideals, and the nobility of our objects. All over the world this is going on, and here in America our activities take the same wide sweep.

For years we have dismissed our responsibility in the alien by talking about the melting pot. You know and I know, and every other man of any intelligence knows, that it has been years since the melting pot did any melting. Month after month, year after year, the hopeful thousands came to this country, their hearts in their hands, their faces in a glow in the light that shines from the Statue of Liberty, and nobody met them there, and we saw the sorry spectacle of thousands of agricultural laborers from Europe going to sweat shops in the industrial centers of the East, while the acreage of the West called to them. We have seen them lured into box cars and driven here and there, scorned by the States, by the cities, by the communities, and by the Government itself, and so how have they come to know America? One of the forces which betrayed Russia was the thousands of Russians who went back from the ghetto to tell them that Americanism was a lie; that there was no such thing as democracy, no such thing as equality, no such thing as hope. Never, in my heart, have I been able to blame them, because the ghetto of New York is there; it is one of the great ulcers of American life, and we have never done anything in the world to let the light in, to let them see America as we know it. That is our problem to-day—to make the promise of America true—not only to our own souls, but to these people over here. They do not speak our language and are not educated, perhaps, but there was something in their hearts that has driven them across the sea. So, after all, they are, perhaps, the truer Americans, because they came here driven and impelled by an aspiration, and that, after all, is true kinship. Ties of blood are not everything. They tie to the blood, but we tie ourselves to the strongest. So what we have got to do is to give democracy a meaning to people to whom it never had any meaning.

You, of course, get down to the problem of the schools. We have got to begin to teach in the schools not only the children, but we have got to take the adults in some ways. The tragedy of America is that it takes the child and then drives a gulf between him and his parents, because we leave them where they were. You have got to go to work, it seems to me, and throw open your school buildings at night. Any Americanization program can not have any firmer base than the community center, by making use of the school buildings of the

United States all the day round, month after month, instead of a few hours a day for seven or eight months out of the year.

After you have got through with your schools, after you have gone to your community centers where you bring the people, the neighborhood groups, the cross sections, you have got to go still further; you have got to give them a sense of justice; you have got to have your legal aid units through all the country; you have got to create some machinery by which they can get justice without having to go through our expensive legal procedure.

It is not a mere question of books; it is a question of our doing something in our communities and in our States to make these people believe we are on the square, and we have got to be on the square with them or else we are going to lose them. Our whole industrial structure rests on this, and already to-day, in every one of these groups, you see them dreaming of a free Poland, you see men dreaming of a free Bohemia, of a free Slav state to which they may return after this war. I tell you what we must do to-day on this Americanization program; it is not only to meet the needs of the hour, it is not only to furnish inspiration for our crisis, but what we have got to do is to get down to the solid foundation under America and to lay a foundation for a democracy.

DR. FINLEY. A soldier, an English "Tommy," was talking to his captain. There, in the dim shadow in the background, was a cross above a grave, and Tommy said to the captain, "Too bad that a man should come to that just for using a few words." And the captain said, "Words, words, words, are the most powerful things in the world. All the good or bad that there is in the world is done through words." And I am thinking of the reach of these words, and I am thinking, too, how careful we must be in preventing the wrong use of words. Words are vital things. "In the beginning was the Word." And I have been doing what I could in New York State since I have been commissioner of education to teach, to help everybody to know the word in which our history, our laws, our ideals, have been written. The first speech I made when I became commissioner of education four years ago in New York was on this very subject, and we have made some progress.

A few days ago I was visiting one of the cantonments not far from here. I sat at mess with the boys. An hour later I came back to the mess hall, and here three or four little groups of men were trying to learn the language of the country which they were called to defend. In one group were three or four Italians and two or three Bohemians, I think they were, and this was the exercise: First, each student had to take a long-handled shovel which represented a rifle; then the teacher would run across the edge of the room and then the student would say, "Halt, who goes there?" as best he could say it. Then the teacher would say, "Friend," and then the soldier would say, as well as his ancestors struggling in his throat would permit him to say it, "Advance and give the countersign."

We should have made that sort of thing unnecessary, but there are tens of thousands of men in the camps who can not speak our tongue, the language of this land which they are called upon to defend, can not even understand the orders. The first thing we must do is to teach those men to speak the English tongue. We must teach them the language of this land in which they are living in order that they may come to love that language, and we must have not only the practical man, the practical geographer, but we must also have the poet to go with the scientist to interpret this America as it has been so wonderfully interpreted to us this morning. If they could all understand what our Secretary said this morning, it seems to me it would not be necessary to do anything more.

There are three bills on this subject before the Legislature of New York at the present moment. One of them appropriates $50,000 for the use of the commissioner of education of the State for the purpose of training teachers who are to teach English to foreigners. That is the first necessity, that there should be teachers, and that they should know how to teach. In the second place, after we have the teachers, we must make provision for the employment of the teachers, and there is a bill providing that the cities and the smaller communities even must make that provision. In the third place, after we have the teacher and the place for the teacher to teach, we must have the pupil. Mr. Somers said this morning that the great difficulty was to get the pupil. There is a bill providing that the illiterate minor shall attend school so many days in a year. Perhaps we can not oblige him to drink, but at any rate we can put before him this source of learning, and that bill is before the legislature requiring every illiterate minor in the State of New York to attend evening school, or school in a shop, if the provision is made, so many nights in the year.

Mr. YOUNG, of Iowa. I have been working on the Council of National Defense for a year and the speakers have been numerous, but they have not reached our part of the disease. The thing that perpetuates treason and perpetuates disloyalty is the German school, which teaches in the infant classes and below the high school. How are you going to Americanize when you are bringing forth un-Americans in America?

Secretary LANE. Are those public schools, Senator?

Mr. YOUNG. Public schools? Yes, sir. There are thousands of public schools in the United States that will close this afternoon singing "Deutschland Uber Alles." They are singing "Die Wacht Am Rhine" in the Northwest, not in the Ghetto.

We thought at the beginning that the people would love this country because it was so good. We found out that was an overestimation of their judgment. If you will suppress or prohibit the teaching of German, or any other foreign language—you can include all of them—below the high school, that is one step; and then when you do this, require the educational forces and the schoolbook companies to get out American German textbooks that shall not advertise the Kaiser and kaiserism and the royal family. I doubt if there is a man here that has read the textbooks used in his own State in teaching the German language. I have, and when I read them I wanted to get a gun and go right to the trenches regardless of age or distance. It is a part of the demoralization of American life and has been for the past 40 years.

Read "In Fatherland." If any of you has ever studied it and translated it, where the boy asks his uncle about Germany and his uncle said, "Yes, they have German States, 26 of them"; and he asked his uncle if they are very much like the American States, and he replies, "Oh, yes, very much like American States"; and he goes on to make out that Germany is a free government, when you know that is not true and has not been for a thousand years. They are undermining the hearts and souls of the little boys and girls on our farms, not in the cities only, but everywhere else. I can take you to religious schools in which there is nothing taught but German. The religious preacher who preaches in German is perpetuating discord for the United States, and the reason he does it is because he will not learn English and does not want his people to learn English; if they learned English, he would be out of a job.

We could throw German out of a good many of the public schools except for the good-hearted board of trustees that dislikes to throw a nice lady out of the business of teaching German. We have not got to the place where patriotism overrules affection.

The thing you need on the school boards, and everywhere else in public service at this age, is absolute courage. If you could fill Congress with men elected for one term who never wanted to come back, if you could fill our legislatures with the same kind, you could get some legislation for the United States of America. When you find a disloyal man in Congress you can trace him back to the fear he has of a German constituency.

I was in Berlin when they sunk the *Lusitania.* I was in the trenches at the front for 30 days in 1915, and in Berlin they told me we could not appropriate money in the United States to begin preparations for war. Why? Because we had so many Germans in the United States, bank presidents and Congressmen, and those who created them, and German newspapers. If I were President of the United States there would not be another one printed tomorrow, or any other time, not one.

I am a newspaper man and have never had any other occupation, but there is no jealousy, because they are not interfering with my subscription list. But I know the power. You go into Wisconsin and Minnesota where you will see a German national bank president, who would have been currying horses if he had stayed in the old country, sitting on a porch reading a German language newspaper, and if you talk to him about the war he will say, " But it was British lies," British lies, everything British lies, and they had two years in which to make the world believe all the atrocities were British lies, and they could not have done that if we had not had German language newspapers. Great Britain had better sense, and did not permit any German, whether naturalized or otherwise, to vote in England. I believe the effect of language has brought about more wars in the world than religion, the Indian troubles, and everything else. Norway, Denmark, and Sweden separated on account of language.

I was in the Balkan States in 1917. The Balkan States could not get together on account of language. I tried to send a newspaper from one country to another, and I could not do it on account of the language. Language is the foundation of everything.

I believe that 90 per cent of all the men and women who teach the German language are traitors and out of sympathy with our Government. I want you to put that down because it is true. I made up my mind when I was in the trenches on the other side that if God would let me live and get back I was going to tell the truth the balance of my days, and I asked Him to forgive me for the past.

If you will do these two things, if you will prohibit the teaching in your several States of the German language in the schools, below the high schools, and let the colleges and the universities do as they please, and give us Americanized school books, and if there are translations of speeches in there, let them be from Lincoln and Wilson and the modern patriots of the United States.

I have but one model. I think this country is good enough for anybody, and I think it is good enough for a foreigner that comes here and gets rich. I have no respect for the man who gets rich in the United States and does not appreciate it. I should like to pay his fare to the country from which he came and in which he performed some manual labor before he left there.

I am tired of the pretense of German efficiency. They have deceived us and camouflaged us in education, in music, in mechanics, in inventions. There is only one way to get together, and that is to get together on the English language. One language, one flag, one country, one God. That is my sort of patriotism.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON RESOLUTIONS.

Gov. STEWART. Mr. Secretary, Ladies, and Gentlemen, the committee on resolutions did not attempt to go into great detail in presenting the subject matter for discussion. We took first the questions suggested by the Secretary of the Interior, but deeming that there was not time for us to consider in detail all of the various suggestions therein set forth, we adopted briefly a few general subjects:

1. We recommend the adoption of the policy that the Federal Government should cooperate with the States, and through the States with the local communities in carrying on an extended, intensive, and immediate Americanization program, including education in every possible way, especially for non-English-speaking foreign-born adults.
2. That the industries employing large numbers of non-English-speaking foreign-born persons should cooperate with the local community, State and Federal Governments in carrying out this proposition.
3. That adequate appropriations should be provided by the Congress to be expended through appropriate governmental agencies for the foregoing purposes.
4. That in all schools in which the elementary subjects are taught they shall be taught in the English language only.

After discussion the resolutions were adopted.

Mr. LUBIN. I represent the State commission on housing, of California, and also the State Council of Defense of California.

The commission of immigration was established four and one-half years ago upon the initiative of Governor (now Senator) Johnson. During that time we have put into effect, or tried to, what we conceived to be a program of Americanism which involves very much more than merely teaching English to foreigners. As a matter of fact it involves very much more than teaching anything just to foreigners, because it is true in California that not all of the unpatriotic or antipatriotic men and women are of foreign birth. Our program attempts to comprehend them all.

We have made a great many mistakes. We have tried to profit by those mistakes, and I have been instructed to bring to you certain reasons and a program for your consideration, based primarily upon our mistakes.

The characteristic features that distinguish it from many other programs that have come to us is that it is practical; it is not a paper scheme worked out in the den or in the closet or in the study. It is the result, as I said, of many mistakes. Almost every feature that we recommend to you, Mr. Secretary, has been tried out. Furthermore, it is comprehensive in another way. In the formation of every committee, in getting up any kind of activity, we have tried to take in our whole population. We have, first, recognized on all committees, the foreigner. He is interested in the question of Americanization. We have recognized labor. Furthermore, it is definitely democratic.

Now, the last message, Mr. Secretary, that we have to bring is this: Speaking for California, we are willing to cooperate with the Federal Government to the limit. But there should be a common leadership here. To-day we are receiving communications in California from six Federal departments in Washington on the subject of Americanization. We are receiving communications, advisory, from five or six, maybe now there are 20 semipublic self-appointed organizations that are telling us what to do. On the day I left California we got two telegrams asking us to do certain things, both from Government officers. If we had done both of the things we should have had to stand on our heads and our feet at the same moment. We are willing to cooperate to the limit, but we insist in that cooperation that there be one central, responsible head in Washington with which we shall deal.

Mr. Chairman, I will close, if you will allow me, by reading this foreword:

FOREWORD.

Out of an actual experience in the field of Americanization extending over more than four years, the commission of immigration and housing of California has evolved certain lessons which it has the honor of presenting to the attention of the Federal Government.

First, the commission has come to a realization of the seriousness of the situation, intensified by our being at war. It subscribes whole heartedly to the words of the President, " It is not an army we must shape and train for war; it is a nation." It realizes the truth as expressed in the National Service Handbook of the Committee on Public Information: " Battles of this war will be won, in a large part, behind the lines. * * * Even a million men in the field will mean little with a sluggish 99,000,000 at home."

Then the commission's experience has brought out the fact that Americanization should take within its scope the native born as well as the immigrant. Not all antipatriots are foreign born. Furthermore, the attitude of the alien toward this country, in great part, is a reflection of the attitude of our own citizens toward him. Americanization should undertake to teach the duty of the host, not less than the duty of the guest.

Again, the commission has discovered that Americanization means infinitely more than teaching English to foreigners. In normal times, it may be sufficient to give the alien our language, waiting patiently before superimposing other and vital information. But in these times of stress we can not wait. We must reach the foreigner in the language he understands, through the media with which he comes in daily contact.

Furthermore, the commission has learned very definitely that to succeed in this task of Americanization an organization must be thoroughly and sincerely democratic. All committees must carry representation of the foreign born and of labor. The program must not be handed down from above, either by a group

of aristocrats or by a group of employers. Above all else, snobbishness and paternalism must be avoided.

And, finally, the exigencies of the situation demand an impetus from the Federal Government which shall articulate and unify all effort. But the coordinating and inspiring and energizing Federal agency must itself be centralized under one head, under one man, who, of course, will utilize all available and appropriate existing agencies, National, State, and local. Again we quote from the National Service Handbook: "To work means organization and centralization * * *. Let us take as our watchwords, intelligent efficiency and get together."

MR. METCALF, of the Council of Defense of Nebraska. We have reached the conclusion that it is absolutely necessary to have a law that will bar from all grade schools, private as well as public, all foreign languages. You heard from Senator Young a few minutes ago some words that perhaps startled some of you, but living in the adjoining State, I, as well as other men who have tried to discharge our duty to our country, could say things that would startle you. It is not in Washington, it is not even in New York, that you find these startling things, it is particularly in those Northwestern States. There are 18 districts in our State where the public school has been driven out by German schools. In those German schools nothing but the German language is spoken or taught. No attention whatever is paid to teaching anything but the German. We have in 12 other districts, in 12 counties, many public schools with only a few pupils, owing to the competition of German schools. There are other districts in which children spend three days in German schools, where they learn nothing but German, then three days in the public school, but having been filled up on the German they are not in condition to learn anything else.

We have one public school in one district in our State where there are but two pupils, while within a stone's throw there is a German school having 33 pupils, teaching nothing but German. Of the 339 teachers investigated, less than 2 per cent are certified, and in nearly all instances, with respect to these graded and private schools that come in such competition with our public schools, they drive many of them out. As a rule, though not entirely without exception, but as a rule, they train the children up to the sixth grade, and do not bring them to the eighth grade, where they could enter the high school. Of 379 teachers investigated, 350 were Germans. In three counties where German schools predominated the German national hymn was generally sung until our State Council of Defense protested. In 100 of these schools the American national hymn, up to 30 days ago, had never been sung. It needed this war to uncover the situation in which our country is rapidly drifting. We have in our State passed many years ago a measure locally known as the "market law," that was passed at the behest of the German Alliance.

That law requires that whenever 12 patrons of a school district shall indicate a certain foreign language to be taught the chosen one shall be taught, and the school board has no choice. The result of that is that the German language is taught generally throughout our public schools.

At the last legislature, two years ago, a determined effort was made to defeat that law, but the German Alliance, backed by the German-language newspapers and a few of the English-language newspapers that did not have the courage or vision to see what there was going on, defeated the repeal of that law. And the same legislature that defeated the proposed repeal of that law defeated a proposition to introduce in our graded schools a course on Abraham Lincoln. One speaker on the floor of our legislature stated that he would rather put $100,000 in a hog barn. To-day our legislature is in special session. A few days ago the house, without a dissenting vote, passed a bill to repeal that so-called market law. It is absolutely necessary that we protect ourselves from this private grade school, as well as to provide that there shall be nothing but the language of the country taught in the public graded schools.

Following the defeat of the proposed repeal of this law, our State Council of Defense, which dares to take a law, when it is righteous and backed by public sentiment, sent out a request asking every school that is American in purpose to substitute the English language for the German language. In most of the public schools, without an act of the legislature, we persuaded the school boards to throw it out. In many private schools, by the very power of that righteous request, we have persuaded them to throw it out, yet we find some resistance.

At the time we were fighting for the repeal of this law we did not go so far as some people have and say that it should not be taught as a cultural study. We want to stay on ground that we can maintain if the war ceases to-morrow; so we took the position that in high schools, colleges, and universities they may have what they choose to have, but in the grade school, nothing but the language of the country shall be taught, and if there is any time to spare, teach them of Lincoln, Jefferson, Washington, and Wilson, and our own great Americans, and instill into them American ideals rather than the so-called ideals branded with "kultur."

Just one word about the German-language press, and a word with regard to the suggestion from the platform that you must not proceed from the standpoint of hate. I can say to you that any man that tries to do his duty on a State Council of Defense, or upon any body trying to protect our country, however kind and careful and considerate he may be, any such man is pointed out and branded by these German language papers and by these German politicians as an emissary of hate.

Within the past four months, Mr. Secretary, we have had nearly 700 men brought before our State Council of Defense, and I myself have personally spent as much as two hours trying to awaken the thought of a single individual trying to help him along that thorny road which he must cross, trying to awaken his sense of duty to his adopted country. I have been kind and considerate; still I, as well as every other man in the hearing of my voice, must use the iron hand when necessary; and I have been called an emissary of hate by the German-language newspapers which preach to these people.

The average German is easy to reach when you can talk to him apart from his politicians and German-language editors, but when you go away and let the German-language newspaper loose on him it is a thing of poison. Of the 15 German-language papers in Nebraska, three only are loyal; two in our State have the indorsement of our Post Office Department and are licensed to go through the mail; yet on July 4, three months after war was declared, one of those papers issued a souvenir spoon bearing upon it the picture of Von Hindenburg on one side and of the Kaiser on the other. The other paper has printed everything that has been sent from Washington, every advertisement from each department, and thus won from the various departments a certificate of good character, but when it came to the general proposition it has spread poison throughout our State in an insidious way.

While you are Americanizing the schools and the children, teaching them nothing but the language of the country, also bring the grown people in. It is an easy matter to do it, but we will never do it so long as we hold our mails open to the German-language press.

I make the prediction now, if this war should last one year longer there will not be a German-language paper admitted to the United States mails, because it is absolutely necessary for America to protect itself from them.

I would not open United States citizenship to any man that was unworthy of it. Instead of forcing anyone to it, I would put it further from their reach. We have in our State many naturalized citizens who are not doing justice to their country. I have the names here of 25 men in our State who, in the Republican Party or the Democratic Party, have held positions in our legislature, have held high public positions. If there were a prohibition campaign, or if there were a political campaign, these men would be out on the stump holding the German vote in line for the breweries on the one hand, or their favorite political party on the other. This is a campaign for the honor of America, for civilization of the world, for humanity itself, and there is not one among that number of Nebraska's naturalized politicians that is out doing anything to help, not one among that number.

On the other hand, I can name a number of men—alien enemies—one I have in mind especially is now out speaking and pleading even, even with naturalized Americans, urging them to come in and stand up for the country which provides them with protection. We have one man who became a splendid governor of Utah, who came to this country when he was 14 years of age, a man who had to go through that same thorny path that all our German friends must pass over. He said: "I had to go over the same road that you have to go over, and I had a struggle as you have had to struggle, but finally my gratitude to America won the day," and in the presence of such a man as that I feel that I am going to be a better American citizen. We have a few of them in Nebraska, a few of them in Iowa, but we have to contend, as Senator Young told you, with the insidious influence of German politicians, of the German-language press, and of cowardly statesmen who are playing to the German galleries.

Mr. Young. I wish to make just a brief suggestion—that is, that this committee call upon educators and book publishers to give us real American textbooks that shall quote from Lincoln instead of Bismarck and the Kaiser. That would help a great deal where the books are retained in the States, where you can not put them out altogether. We are entitled to have it. I would ask the committee if they could not put a paragraph in suggesting to educators and book publishers that they do that. I have written to every schoolbook publisher in America suggesting that we want to get rid of those that are devoted entirely to the so-called fatherland and to have an American that shall teach their language with our literature.

Mr. Ohlinger, president Toledo Commerce Club, Toledo. What has been said to-day has interested me tremendously. I also come from the Black Belt where Senator Young comes from and the gentleman from Nebraska. I mean by that the belt in States that have been printed in red in German textbooks and labeled as German territory, and, of course, the reason for that has been the very fact that German has been such a prominent part in the curriculum of those schools. For some 30 years there has been reported in Germany the name of every school where German is taught in this country, the names of the teachers, and they have those lists catalogued, such importance do they attach to that system. I may say also that the school law of Nebraska has been held up as a model of legislation on behalf of that of the German language.

I think the most important thing in this whole proposition of Americanization is this subject of the schools and the barring of the German language from all the grades, to keep it in the high school as a cultural study, if you will; but it should be barred from all private and public schools as a language of study and also as a cultural language in those grades.

I am ready to admit that there has been and possibly is now place for a foreign-language press in the United States; any foreign population whose immigration is still coming to this country, whose flow of immigration is still large, must have a foreign-language press, because these new immigrants have the right to have something in their own language as a mediary between them and their new environments. There are regions to which that does not apply, and it does not apply to the German immigrant, because the German immigration has actually ceased; there has been hardly any German immigration to this country for the past 20 years, and none whatever in the past 3 years. There is absolutely no reason, so far as the German population is concerned, why a German-language press should continue in the United States. It can have its basis only on two suppositions: First, that those who support that press are incapable of learning the English language, and if that is the case, then they need no press at all, or, second, upon the supposition that they wish to retain their national solidarity and retain their language as a means of that solidarity. When you come to that, they have no right to a press, because it is absolutely necessary for the preservation of our ideals in this war that the one bond of union shall be the Union of the United States and that there shall be no subsidiary nationality. Everything else must give way to this one supreme Union.

I do not think we should go on record as forcing the foreign-born element in this country by a certain period to apply for naturalization papers. I think that is the wrong method. American citizenship, as you have very well said, is a matter of ideals and of spirit, and if we can get the spirit of American citizenship and the spirit of Americanism into these people you will not need any force to compel them to become naturalized. They will be glad to be naturalized. It depends upon us whether we can present those ideals with the vitality and force in order to compel these foreign-born people to apply voluntarily for citizenship. Unfortunately it has not been the case in this country in the past. A few days ago I met a man born in Germany who came to my office with his wife and asked if it was not possible for him to be relieved of his stigma of representation as an alien enemy. He had lived in this country 40 years and has two sons in Gen. Pershing's army, but in spite of that he was compelled to register as an alien enemy, because he had not felt during those 40 years the throb of national life enough to become a citizen. It lies with us to present these ideals with such force that our foreign-born element will voluntarily and gladly come forward and apply for naturalization.

I believe this proposition for compulsory naturalization should not be urged, because if you examine the history of the past few years you will realize that one large section of this country has been unequaled for naturalization. It has been urged upon the members of that race to become naturalized as quickly as possible and to acquire the right to vote, and they have done that for the purpose of controlling the public forum of this country in the interest of the German language. That is a thing which we wish to avoid. Do not let us have naturalization until the foreign-born come forward and are glad to receive it and welcome it. Let us make it more precious, something that has to be aspired to, not something to be forced upon a man. And if we fill ourselves with the ideals of Americanism sufficiently we can propagate those ideals in such a way that they will be glad and anxious to become members of our political community.

Gov. MANNING. Mr. Secretary, I want to offer a resolution that will enable us to put in effect the policy that has been outlined in those resolutions. In South Carolina we have not a very serious problem. Less than 1 per cent of our population are foreign, and in the National Army in the cantonments in that State are truly American soldiers, because in those camps there are less than 1 per cent of foreign-born. We feel, however, Mr. Secretary, and realize the conditions that exist in other parts of the country, especially in view of the revelations that have been made here, which seem to have been unknown to some of our members, but, of course, were known to others; we realize the necessity of trying to correct those conditions, and I feel that we all stand here under the American flag, with all that it represents, for our unity, for our power, for our aims, and for our purpose and we stand under that flag and by it with loyalty and high resolves. But in order to carry out the purpose of this resolution I would offer the following:

Resolved, That the honorable the Secretary of the Interior appoint a committee of nine members, representative of those in attendance at this meeting, including governors, chairmen of State Defense Councils, officials of commercial organizations and industrial corporations, and representatives of the workers of the Nation,[1] who shall ask a hearing before a joint session of the Senate and House Committees on Education for the purpose of furthering legislation that will give Federal direction and leadership to the movement for teaching the English language to the illiterates and non-English-speaking persons of foreign origin residing in the United States and which will promote, through the public schools, the systematic instruction of such persons in American ideals, standards, and citizenship.

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[1] The words "and representatives of the workers of the Nation" were inserted at the suggestion of Mr. Gompers, Gov. Manning assenting.

I offer this resolution.

Secretary LANE. The motion is to the effect that this committee, when appointed, shall convey to Congress the spirit of this conference. That is about it, it strikes me, that in conveying these resolutions the spirit of the conference may be very well presented. I see no objection to it whatever, excepting that it seems to me that if they present the resolutions that it expresses the sentiment of the body. Gentlemen, this motion is before you.

The resolution was adopted. The chairman appointed as members of the committee the same gentlemen who had constituted the committee on resolutions, namely, Gov. Stewart, Gov. Manning, Gov. Milliken, Mr. Mayer, Mr. Clark, Mr. Somers, Mr. Gompers, Mr. Hale Holden, and Mr. Lynch.

In response to a suggestion, Mr. Mayer, of Chicago, introduced a series of resolutions (1) to require all unnaturalized foreigners over 21 to apply for naturalization papers and to study the English language, and (2) to require all foreign-language newspapers to publish articles supplied by the Bureau of Education.

The resolutions were supported in a vigorous speech by Mr. Mayer. The superintendent of public schools of Lowell, Mass., stated that the law requiring that instruction shall be given in the English language is not universally observed in the schools of Massachusetts and other States. Dr. McKinley, of Philadelphia, discussed the international aspect of the question of naturalization, and showed that the action contemplated by the resolution would affect Americans abroad and embarrass the State Department. Mr. Garber upheld the view of Dr. McKinley; he stated that though the schools can do much in Americanization, the influence of the home is potent, and a common American spirit is needed above all things. Mr. George M. Graham thought it futile merely to require that certain articles be published, and he urged that all German-language papers be barred for the period of the war at least. Mr. Brewer, of Boston, objected to wholesale naturalization of unassimilated foreigners on the ground that in many communities they would control the elections contrary to the interests of native inhabitants and of the country at large. Others took part in the discussion.

Secretary Lane called attention to the fact that the resolutions were not only outside the domain of the conference, but they were also antagonistic to its purposes. He stated that strict censorship should be and is exercised over the foreign-language papers, and that compulsory naturalization is unwise and impracticable. Mr. Mayer withdrew the resolutions.

Secretary LANE. Gentlemen, I take great pleasure in presenting to you a man from California who has lived the life of the trenches, mixed with the men abroad, and knows the feeling of those countries, and has interpreted with rare clearness the feeling of the people on the other side—Mr. Will Irwin.

Mr. Irwin. Mr. Chairman, ladies, and gentlemen, I should like to talk about just one little episode "over there" which came under my observation, because it is rather interesting, and it is because we have had very little information on it on this side, and because it bears directly upon our American problem at present; that is the Italian break at Caporetto last October, the break in the Italian Army. I was present at the time. As a matter of fact, I was with the Italian Army for some time before this happened and rather expected just what did happen. I was there afterwards and know a little about it, and I know that it was never put clearly to the people of the United States. I must bore you with a little bit of history and geography about the early part of this war before I come to the point. You know that the northern part of Italy, in the days before the great Italian movement, was held by Austria, and the middle by two Papal States, and the south by two extremely incompetent kingdoms. When, in 1860, Garibaldi began the Italian movement the hardest fight was against Austria, but the south never had Austria to hate as the north knew it. Italy has been a nation only since 1860; she is the oldest people but the youngest nation in this war. While she has made miraculous progress in pulling together a nation out of the adverse elements with which she formed herself, the patriotism of the average Italian was 40 years ago, and is still to a certain extent, more for his native village than it is for Italy.

Some one said when united Italy was formed, "We are just a collection of marbles in a box." That was a little true 40 years later when Italy entered this war. She came nearer entering it for idealistic motives than most of the nations that went into the war, because when you have counted up the nationalists of Italy, that old imperialist lot that I regret to say infest every nation, but which is in the minority on our side and the majority in Germany, even that old nationalist element was not the thing that dragged Italy into the war. It was a sympathy for democracy, particularly for French democracy, because the cultures of Italy are the French.

Now, time went on and the Italian Army performed miraculously at the north. I have always considered the Italian Army to be by far the best organized army on this side. Their success was especially remarkable because they did not have a single level foot of territory to fight over. It was all mountains or high desert hills. You know Napoleon once said, "God made Italy so that Austria would have some one to beat." The shoe is really on the other foot. Italy has always seemed to have the Indian sign on Austria since Garibaldi's time. It was across a country where there was no water, no place to dig trenches—they had to blast them with blasting powder. Italy had forced her way through to the point where she had only one more hill to conquer.

I stood three or four days before this break came and looked across a mountain rising just in front of me, with the Italian trench line running over the head of it, and the Austrian line just below the summit, and beyond that, as far as the eye could reach, clear out to the horizon, as I saw the horizon from a 3,000-foot peak, there lay a perfectly level plain, not a river that interfered with the open route to Austria; and Italy in August and September of last year occupied that position. One more gathering of force, and that summit of San Gabriel would be won, and they would spill over into the eastern plain, leaving the way open for the allies to get to Vienna. Germany prepared to meet that.

I could have it in my heart sometimes to be sympathetic with Austria. Poor old Austria is so tired of this thing. When I was in Austria last August and the early September, I did not see an Austrian of any class who was not willing to weep on anybody's neck for peace. The Austrians had the saying that it would be 5 years after this war before a German would be received in Rome, 10 years before he would be received in London, 15 years before he would be received in Paris, and 50 years before he would be received in Vienna. But Germany came down to press her vassal, for Austria is her vassal; Austria can not quit, because Germany has a grip on her. Germany came down to press her up and to relieve that situation, and Germany prepared this thing, worked it up for two or three months, by wonderful preliminary bombardment, but here is the point: It was a preliminary bombardment of propaganda.

I am going to tell you what I know about it from unimpeachable sources. To begin with, the majority socialist, or rather the official socialists of Italy, a body of 50 men, a body of very clever men, the one cohesive political body in the Italian Chamber of Deputies, had been against the war from the first. They were formed under German patronage in the days of the Triple Alliance, when Germany was considered the little father of Italy. They had great admiration for the German political machine, and they took their stock by the principle of international deeds, the principle of internationalism, notwithstanding the fact that the Germans had appeared to be the friends of the French and the English.

Against the war was the old premier of Italy, for 10 years the king-maker, whose connection with Germany was extremely close. He had begun as a partner of a Jewish-German banker and mixed up now with the ruling bank of Italy, in every way connected with Germany. He had tried to stop the movement to enter the war and was sulking in his tent. Possibly he was good then; I do not know; but certainly the socialists began it. It began, very likely, when some of the Russian matters had come up in the days before and Russia was going to get down to Italy and hold a conference with these socialists. It was followed by a propaganda among the peasant women of Italy.

Now, here we come to another very curious thing. I can talk all night about the curiosities of this war. Here is a very curious thing. Women are making the public opinion of Europe now. The civilian public opinion is made by women, and, in fact, the public opinion in general of the nations. The reason for that is the strength, the manhood of the country, is at the front. The women are running the country. What we call public opinion in practically all the belligerent nations is women's opinion. So in Italy they began on the peasant women. They got in and they started on that method of German propaganda strategy which was employed all through last year, the method of creating mistrust of England. It was always England, just as this year they are beginning to hammer at the United States; but it was then England. They tried in every way to create mistrust of England. They tried to show that the country had simply sold itself out to England; that their men were being killed simply for England; that there was no necessity for the war; the war could be stopped immediately, and Italy would be better off than before, but the English would not let them. They talked that way to the peasant women.

The peasant woman of Italy is usually uneducated, because Italy has neglected public education on account of many obstacles that she has had to meet. She is a soft, loving, gentle, industrious, good soul, and she does not see very far behind her home maker, and she does not know anything about international relations, and she listened to this and all she could see was that she was being cheated out of her man, and she began to hate the war.

Then came the next stage. The men came home on leave. The women got hold of them and talked this to them, and there is the place where woman is not only making public opinion, but the way the army takes it, it makes all the difference in the world when a man comes home on his leave what the woman says to him; whether she says, " Go back and beat them and God save you," or whether she says, "For God's sake, don't go back," and cries on his neck. These men began to come home on leave. It was discovered that a lot of them began to desert. A great many deserted and used the military knowledge they learned at the front to put up barb-wire barriers themselves and to dig in, and they defied the police in that way.

This thing was rather badly handled by the Italian military authorities. Cadorna's fear was that he had no covenant with politicians, and he did not care to have anything to do with the civilian control of his country, but if you will cast your eye over history you will discover every good general was a good politician. Cadorna did not understand this; could not do it. Cadorna really had no appeal to the imagination of Italians. It needs a man with drama to lead them. It needs a man who has sat before St. Peter's in Rome on a white horse and said, " Soldiers of Italy, I offer you death." That is what will lead Italians—drama. They need it as much as we need humor.

Cadorna answered the desertions by cutting off leave. That makes a man very sore. Any man who leads soldiers after the first week sees that danger makes little difference to them, but food and leave—those are the two things. Cut off food and leave, and you have trouble with your army. When the time came for leave these men were sent back to dig and make roads at the rear, so the morale of the army was a little affected.

Two weeks before this thing occurred I came back to the Italian Army, which I had not seen at that time for nearly a year, although I had known it quite well formerly. I talked to the officers and to the men—men whom I had known. With Italians in the army you can always get up a conversation, because they have 250,000 men among them who have lived in the United States and speak English, and they are crazy to talk English with some one from America. Wherever I went they all said the same thing, "The war is going to be over in December." Officers tried to make engagements with me in January, because, they said, "I am going to Paris for a little time as soon as the war is over," and they continually asked me if I thought that there was going to be any trouble after the war, in January, getting passes back to America. When I would go further into this question, they could not tell me why, but they almost always answered, "Why," they would say, "the peace conference is on in Switzerland." Just as soon as the conference was finished they were going to announce it. That was the universal opinion of the Italian Army. It was so strong that the very officers of the British batteries were affected by it.

Now, just a few words about the military situation. Off here to the right is the head of the Adriatic Sea. The Italian line began at the Adriatic. The line was 30 or 40 miles off this desert to an oasis where there was a town, and this town was held by the Third Army from Goritzia, going right straight up one of the foothills of the Alps. They were a great deal more than foothills. Along near the points where the trouble occurred they were probably higher than anything we have in the Alleghenies, and much more precipitous. The Second Army of Italy was stationed there. The Second Army was the great corps of the Italian Army. It had performed one of the brilliant operations of the war in August. Among the posts the Italian Second Army held in that territory is the post of Polomena. Polomena is one of the natural gateways into Italy.

It began to be known a few days after I was there that there was going to be an attack, and German units had been sighted among the Austrians opposing us. It was looked upon with considerable calm. There had been 11 great battles, and this was considered another battle, probably an attempt to take back a fort in order to relieve the situation at San Gabriel. It was expected we were going to have a severe attack, but it was looked forward to by the staff with considerable confidence, and when that attack began it developed with a severe preliminary bombardment that occurs at those times. The attention of the Italian Army was strongly concentrated on Tulon. Tulon was a natural place to come over, and the enemy showed every sign of attempting to come through there.

The Italian army stood well; lost one little height; lost very little; stood beautifully against this attack. And so, for three days of this action, more and more it became concentrated on Tulon, and here they seemed to be coming through. Above Tulon, some 20 or 30 miles, is a place called Caperreta. In looking over the profile maps of this region just before the attack, and in talking it over at headquarters, I remember asking if there was any danger in that region, and the answer was no, you can not expect anything to happen up there, because that country is so well defended, no enemy in his senses would think of breaking through that. A battalion could hold that against regiment after regiment.

That position was held by two divisions, extending over probably 14 to 20 miles. These two divisions were a little inclined to be rebellious, though not much, when this thing started; but over on the Austrian front the Russians had been spreading propaganda among the Austrians, and they had got some of the Austrian regiments in a state of rebellion, whereupon the Germans, as part of this plot, transferred two of those disaffected divisions and put them right among the Italian divisions, and turned them loose to work on what they had learned from the Russians.

These men began to meet and began to talk, to fraternize. In that country everybody talks a dozen languages. You can almost identify any man in that region of the world, because they have some language in common. They talked—talked between the trenches—and the conversation went about like this, for among the Austrians there had been agents, putting into their minds the things that they were expected to say. The Austrians would say to the Italians, "We hear the war is going to end in December." The Italians would say, "That is funny; we hear the same thing." And the Austrians would say, "I don't see any use in fighting, do you?" The

Italians would say, "Sure, what's the use." Then they talked it over.

They would come to this conclusion: If any darned snip of a general, with gold lace all over him, tried to make them fight out there, they would be darned if they would do it; and they got to agreeing that if they were called to make a charge on either side, they would come over, throw up their hands, and they would shake hands and say "Comrade." So they had fine fraternization every night that the thing was going on. The Italians were being in the meantime thoroughly disaffected with their government and especially wildly prejudiced against England by matter being circulated secretly through the trenches. They tried to stop it, but you can not stop it entirely. The proclamation was dropped from airplanes.

Finally came one of the cleverest tricks of all. Perhaps you have heard it. It is true. The fake newspapers. Newspapers get up into those mountains very seldom. The men are always hungry for news. They used to ask me for newspapers before they asked me for chocolates or cigarettes. One day the newspapers came up in great quantities. They seemed to be regular Roman and Milan papers. There were the same advertisements and the headlines were the same, so they tell me, and they say if you put the paper opposite a real copy you could not tell which was the forgery and which was not. But the front page was different. The front page, made up so it looked exactly right, contained stories of the awful starvation in Italy; awful conditions about food and food riots in these men's home towns which had been put down with enormous slaughter of women and children, not by the Italian troops but by French and British troops imported for the purpose. All a lie. There was only one basis of fact in that—there had been a food riot a few weeks before. It happened this way: Somebody managed the stoppage of the wheat supply. No bread got in there. It was staged to bring on a riot. That riot was put down by the Italian military police.

Then, finally, here is another thing, although this whole story, of course, will never be told until long after the war. Outgoing letters from the war zone are very carefully censored. Incoming letters from their own people are not so carefully censored, because after all what the censor is after is to prevent the escape of military information, and military information is not coming from the rear forward. Moreover, the letters were censored in small units. So that this coincidence was not noticed until afterwards. Just a day or two before this attack, about one-half or one-third of the married men in those two divisions in the Italian Army received letters or postcards, usually anonymous, from home towns, telling them that their wives had been unfaithful, and naming the alleged man who was responsible for it, all of which was absolutely untrue. Simply done to put that fellow in such a state that he didn't give a darn for anything. He only wanted to go home and kill that brute. That was the last thing that was done.

Then, one morning, when everything was ready, when the Italian Army was talked out as they wanted it, the blow was struck. The night before these Austrian regiments were taken out, leaving only a thin fringe in the front trenches to distract attention, and crack German shock regiments were put in their places. Five divisions of them were there, and early that morning, with no other preparation than was necessary to remove the barb wire, came over the top and went through them. This was a front of somewhere between 15 and 20 miles; not a front so long as you can say that everyone acts in the same way. There were active divisions here and there, but in the main the Italians behaved according to agreement. They rose up in their trenches and said "Comrade," and were very much astonished when "Comrade" did not stop at all, but went on through and struck the reserves.

The Germans made one bad calculation; they had failed to count on one thing—Italian pride. The Germans made the mistake of plastering north Italy, saying, "We come to rescue you from England. We know you are beaten, but we are not going to press it too far. We are going to stop and give you back your borders. Just have patience with us a little while. We will give you back your borders." That patronage drove all of Italy mad. It was Italian pride that caused Italy to come back.

I am telling all of those facts to you gentlemen and to you ladies from all over the country who are interested in this Americanization. I want to say to every man who goes out through this country, that the German whispering propaganda that was so effective in Italy is laid out among us. In Italy it was carried on by very few agents. In America they have 3,000,000 or 4,000,000 of very intelligent people, thoroughly capable, who are only too glad to spread anything on a tip from a central source. I have been having something to do with that game since I have been back here, and I can trace it through the rumors, through the apparently spontaneous reports that spring up in different parts of the country, just as thorough a scheme of strategy propaganda as the Boche used in Italy against the Italians. The time may come with us, just exactly as it came with Italy, when they will systematize it and send it out as a preliminary bombardment to break down our American morale. We have got to watch it all of the time. It is far more dangerous, in my opinion, than the spy—that poisoning of the public mind to undermine the will to win in this war.

The reserves had been disaffected in other ways. Their morale was gone, and, moreover, here was a little fine point of the drama.

Ahead of the charging German regiment there ran Austrians—men who spoke perfect Italian, dressed in the uniform of Italian staff officers, who rushed into the dugouts and telephone exchanges and division headquarters—and wherever there was a sign of a command they gave the order for a general retirement. The reserves held it so, and the five German divisions walked through and got in the rear of the gallant Second Army, and there was nothing to do. The artillery of the Second Army—sometimes it takes two or three weeks to get the guns up to those positions—were cut off from the rear. The whole Second Army would have been wiped out but for the boys with the sombreros and cock feathers who charged barehanded into annihilation and stopped them dead.

Secretary LANE. Now, I am going to ask, as a closing feature, each one of the governors who has been with us to say just two words regarding the feeling in his State. Gov. Stewart, of Montana.

Gov. STEWART. Mr. Secretary and Gentlemen and Ladies of the Convention: It is pretty hard to express the feeling in any State in two words. I may say to you, however, that in the State of Montana we have as healthful, as strong, as vigorous, and as loyal a public sentiment as there is in any State in the Union.

It was recently my good fortune to call the Legislature of the State of Montana into extraordinary session for the purpose of enacting such laws as might be necessary in the peculiar emergency which confronted our people. We put upon the statute books of Montana a sedition law with teeth in it, a sedition law which ought to be copied into the statutes of the United States of America. We also passed a sabotage law, and we took from the bench of the second highest court in the State a man who had been guilty of seditious and treasonable utterances and acts and tore from him, by the solemn procedure of impeachment, the judicial ermine which he disgraced.

So that I may say to you that this, in common with other things, is indicative of the fact that the sentiment of our particular part of the Northwest is healthful and wholesome. I am glad that we have met here to consider these matters of national import. I think the plan of procedure that has been suggested by Secretary Lane and that has been adopted is a most vital and important one. I should personally like to see some of the suggestions of our freind Mr. Mayer, from Chicago, put into operation. I know that the spirit which actuates him is the right spirit. I tell you that the people of this country are awake to the fact that we are at war, and it is time that the Congress of the United States, especially the United States Senate, was waking up and finding it out, too.

I hope that the discussion here to-day will have the beneficial result of calling to the attention of the Congress of the United States the necessity for controlling the foreign-language papers in this country, and the necessity for the changing of some of the existent draft regulations. You know that the draft is based upon registration. They first registered on the 5th day of last June, all of the men in this country between the ages of 21 and 31. Then, from that registration the population is calculated, and upon the population so found the draft is levied in each one of the communities. That seems fair. It is, up to that point. But then the alien who had been included in that draft and was counted in making up your population and registration is allowed to go free, and thereby a greater burden is levied upon the citizen population of a given community than would have been levied but for the presence of the alien registered population. That is not fair. Gen. Crowder has called it to the attention of Congress. That is not all. The alien who claims exemption is standing by for the purpose of taking your boy's job or mine when the draft takes him from us and sends him to the Army; and I say that that is not fair either.

Secretary LANE. Gov. Manning, of South Carolina.

Gov. MANNING. Mr. Secretary, I can not resist the temptation of saying to men here, representing many callings and professions and vocations, from many parts of this country, that I think in one sentence I can show how my heart is in this war: I have five boys in it.

Not only that, Mr. Secretary, but I would not have it otherwise, and I want to say that the mother of these boys, who comes from Virginia, would not have it otherwise.

Mr. Secretary, I have attended this meeting with a great deal of interest. As I said in presenting some resolutions a few moments ago, the foreign-born problem is not one that affects South Carolina. Less than 1 per cent of our people are foreign born, but I say, Mr. Secretary, with some regret, that we, like other States, have some people who have been affected by German propaganda, and I want to say here that in traveling through different parts of this country, if there is one feeling on which our people seem to be almost unanimous it is that there is too much leniency in the treatment of those who are pro-German.

When the resolution was passed declaring that we were at war with Germany I felt that America was no longer the place for those who had sympathies with Germany, and I feel now, after we have been in this war a year, when we see what this war means to us, to all of the civilized world and to humanity and to Christianity itself, I feel that it is time that examples should be made of those who are untrue to the American flag and American ideas.

Mr. Secretary, in South Carolina, before we were asked to appoint a State Council of Defense, I proceeded at once, as soon as war was declared, to appoint a commission on civic preparedness. I appeared before that commission and I told them that until other means were adopted it was an organization which I wanted to use throughout the State to carry out every proposition that came down to us from the Federal Government. That organization went to work with the purpose first of creating sentiment, creating the true sentiment, and explaining to all people why we had been forced into this war. When the State Council of Defense was asked for, I merged the commission on civic preparedness into the State Council of Defense, and I want to say with some pride that the National Council of Defense has sent us the word that among the States of the Union the work done by that council has ranked as fifth in the Union and as first in the South. That council is the organization through which I am working everything. We work down through the schools. It reaches the counties. It goes down to the school district as the unit through which this message is carried. We have the State absolutely organized. This message which I will take to them from this conference will be given to them by my State council and they will try to carry out the purpose of this conference, and I wish to say to you and to this conference that South Carolina has done her part in the critical periods in the history of America. The spirit which carried our people through the Revolutonary days still lives in our people to-day, and we stand ready, Mr. Secretary, to give our boys, to give our material resources and our lives themselves, and will know no surrender until Prussian militarism and German atrocities are subdued and brought to an end. That is the spirit which exists in South Carolina.

Secretary LANE. Gov. Milliken, of Maine.

Gov. MILLIKEN. Mr. Secretary, we have a very small foreign population in Maine. We have a very, very small alien enemy population, so small that we need take very little account of it. I want to say to you, Mr. Secretary and Gentlemen, that we have submerged for the time being, in Maine, all our differences that relate to grade or to class, or to capital or labor. Those are submerged, just as rocks and the defenses in the harbor are submerged when the tide is in, and we are all together and behind the Government in this war.

Secretary LANE. Gov. Alexander, of Idaho.

Gov. ALEXANDER. Mr. Secretary, Ladies, and Gentlemen, I want to bring to you all the spirit of Idaho. In Idaho we believe that he who is not with the Government in this crisis is against the Government, and if he is against the Government he ought to get out, for he has no business in this country of ours. We are loyal to the flag, to our institutions, to our homes, and our country. We believe we are fighting for a principle, and whatever the Government of the United States may want of the State of Idaho in this crisis, we are ready to furnish to the last man, to the last dollar, and the last breath. All we ask is that when this war is over our boys may come back with victory perched upon the banner of the Stars and Stripes.

Idaho has solved, law or no law, one question that we discussed to-day. At the outbreak of the war I said, "Not another German book shall be bought, nor shall another German book in the German language be used in any school from the universities down," and none is used there now.

There is a great deal of constitutionality about that, but in war times things are different. German is not taught in the State of Idaho, probably will never be, even after the war is over. Whenever there is anything that is necessary in the spirit of winning this war, I want to say to you, Mr. Secretary, that I pledge you my word that it shall be accomplished. I expect to call the legislature for the purpose of making an appropriation, because our legislature adjourned before war was declared, but we have money and have furnished everything required, and you can count on Idaho. Whatever is wanted we will furnish, no matter what it is.

Secretary LANE. Gov. Goodrich, of Indiana.

Gov. GOODRICH. Mr. Secretary, a wise old man said many years ago, "Shew me thy faith without thy works, and I will shew thee my faith by my works." In this war Indiana points to the record. In every line of endeavor, in the number of her volunteers, for though you called for 5,000 we gave you 24,000, and more in contributions of money; in carrying forward every war activity Indiana points to the record.

Secretary LANE. Gov. Frazier, of North Dakota.

Gov. FRAZIER. Gentlemen, the German-born citizens that we have could not help but be born in Germany, and I believe they are due a great deal of credit for the loyalty that they show during this war. In my State there are a large number of foreign-born Germans and Russians, German citizens, and as a whole they are very loyal. There have been some cases where ardent patriots have spoken disrespectfully of those German citizens, calling them names, disloyalists, etc., and I could not blame the Germans if they did resent it and refuse to contribute to the Liberty loan or the Red Cross; but where they had the proposition explained to them fairly and where they understood the situation they have contributed liberally. North Dakota has gone over the top on every line of war work that has been proposed so far. The Russian Germans and German citizens of North Dakota are to-day sowing wheat and have been seeding wheat for the past week in North Dakota, because wheat is what our Government most wants, and I believe that is true in other German sections. If the conditions existed in Nebraska as was stated here to-day, the Germans of that State were not alone to blame. The people of Nebraska in years past have been to blame in allowing the conditions to be as they are in educational lines in that State. I have a great deal of sympathy for our German-born citizens, and I believe consideration is due them. Anyone that is pro-German at this time and against the Government should feel the heavy hand of the law. By all means have our German papers censored and kept under control, but we have no way, except through the German papers, of educating those German citizens who can not read the English language, and I believe they should be continued in order to reach those people as best we can until the children can be educated up from the school.

I want to say that the people of North Dakota are as loyal and as much back of the President in this war as the people of any other State in this Union. They are going to stay back of the President until the war is won. Our National Guard is all across the water, fighting with the allies, and they will do their part when it comes to the battles. Of course they have made a good record so far, and we are willing to chance the record of North Dakota upon their good work while at the front.

Secretary LANE. Gov. Williams, of Oklahoma.

Gov. WILLIAMS. Mr. Secretary, ladies, and gentlemen, the State of Oklahoma stands ready and is doing its part. We may have had a little trouble in the beginning in the enforcement of the draft law, but that trouble was put down without appealing to the Federal Government. Since then we have had no trouble. We have organized an appeal to the patriotism of the people of the State. It has not been necessary to call the legislature together. We appealed to the Germans to stop German in their private schools. We appealed to the Lutheran ministers to stop it in the parochial schools, and we have succeeded in doing that without resorting to the rule of force. We have felt that that was the wise way. We treat fairly the men of foreign birth and German parentage; we draw them to our country in this way. If we do not succeed by an appeal to reason, then would be time for force, but in this great contest for democracy reason and patriotism should be the first recourse. You can count on the people of this new State to stand with this Government in this time of peril, and we will be with her to the end, and we will be with her when she has won.

The CHAIRMAN. Gov. Gunter, of Colorado.

Gov. GUNTER. Mr. Secretary, my Brother Governors, Ladies, and Gentlemen: Every moment of this assemblage here to-day has been inspiring to me. It is a reconsecration, so far as I am concerned, to the high duties that devolve upon us all as citizens. I have looked over this body and have felt appreciation of the character of its personnel, and I am proud that from my State of Colorado, away off in the Rocky Mountains, we have half a dozen of representatives.

Now, let me tell you what we are doing out in our Commonwealth. From Washington came the news, five days before the declaration of war, that war was inevitable. Before the shadows of evening approached I had gathered together, as the chief executive of that Commonwealth, 25 of the first citizens of the State, men representing all localities in the State, men representing the great industries of the State, men representing labor, men representing capital; and from that good hour to this I have never called upon a citizen of Colorado to act in this hour of peril that he has hesitated one moment to come and to act. Every Tuesday morning from that day to this those men have gathered in the executive office and have remained if necessary throughout the day, and on more than one occasion throughout the night, aiding the governor by the best efforts of their lives. A council of women was organized, 63 members, an organization reaching throughout the State. These two bodies were coordinated with every one of our 63 counties, and in nearly every county there is complete organization. This Council of Defense was subdivided into committees, such as the committee on conservation, on finance, on marketing, etc., and as questions come up in all of these fields they are dealt with efficiently. The legislature was not in session. We needed money. The members of that council, with a few of their friends, provided the money with which we have proceeded. Out in the short-grass regions seed was needed for struggling farmers. The members of that council helped those farmers, and they got practically every dollar of it back when the harvest season came on. We were troubled with lack of transportation in the State. When congestion occurred in some counties, probably 600 miles from our capital city, the committee on transportation acted. Cars were provided. The products were brought to the market. The women organized throughout the State just as efficiently.

The legislature was called. Seven of the best citizens of the State were selected. The governor told them what legislation he wanted and asked them to draw up bills to meet those conditions and avoid conflicts in the legislature. The legislature was convened. In nine days' time every bill was passed that the governor asked and the legislature had gone home.

Partisanship has not interfered with patriotic service in Colorado. Our senate stood 36 to 36, and yet stood 72 when it came to passing a Democratic governor's measures. The war council was composed of 25 men—9 Democrats and 16 Republicans. The best service of the highest and most unselfish character has been given to their governor ever since.

A National Guard was organized. The quota of Colorado was 5,000. A month before we were to mobilize and turn them over to the Federal Government we had mobilized them in the State. We had uniformed them. We had drilled them, and after spending nearly $500,000 we turned the soldiers over to the National Government. They are now in Camp Kearney, a magnificent body of men; and as I saw them move by in splendid military review the other day the commanding general said, "Colorado has sent her soldiery here certainly as well equipped as any other State in the Union." We gathered together then to help the selective draft; 85,000 names were listed. The exemption boards were approved.

Not in a locality in that State, in the remotest mining camp, have we had the least trouble. When it looked as if trouble was threatened, I put a president of a corporation, counsel for the defense, in certain of their mining troubles, and a leader of labor upon a committee. The strike was arrested. We have never had a suggestion of trouble since, and when I left our State a few evenings since our leading labor representative of the State said, "Bear the news to Washington that there will be no trouble between labor and capital in this State."

We are all going to unite in every way we can, that Colorado may do her full patriotic duty. More than $60,000,000 has been subscribed by Colorado. More than 13,000 soldiers have gone out of my Commonwealth for the National Government; at every step we have sought to know what Washington wanted, and all of the powers of that Commonwealth have been brought to bear when we knew what our National Administration wished us to do. I am glad to have been with you to-day, and I thank you for hearing me.

SECRETARY LANE. Before you go I want to say that the committee, of which Gov. Stewart is chairman, on the resolutions which are to be presented, in part at least, to Congress, will meet at the office of the Secretary of the Interior at 12.15 to-morrow. Gov. Houx, of Wyoming.

Gov. HOUX. Mr. Secretary and Ladies and Gentlemen: Being from one of the smallest States in population in the United States of America, one of the new States, I came down here with the hope of learning something of importance from your older-settled communities that might be of benefit to my State. I believe I have gained a good deal by being here.

I represent the State which was the first in the Union to give women the right to vote, and they have from time to time been in our legislatures and helped us to make our laws. Consequently, we have the best laws in the Union.

I am heartily in accord with the Secretary's ideas for this education of the foreign element. We have about 30,000 foreigners in our State, employed in the coal mines, and we began some time ago, Mr.

Secretary, through our State board of education, a system of educating these foreigners. We have night schools in every town of any importance, and have had them for more than a year and a half. We control our State schools wholly. We have a State board of education, whom I appointed. They appoint a commissioner of education. More than a year ago we discontinued the teaching of German in our high schools and in our university, which is as good as there is in the West. We have several private schools taught by Germans. They have discontinued the teaching of the German language. There is only one thing that they have asked us to allow them to do, and that is to worship in their own language. We could not, under the Constitution of this great United States, deprive them of that privilege.

We have a population, my friends, of about 200,000. I organized a full regiment, including officers, of 2,200 men in the National Guard, and, as Gov. Gunther said, equipped them, and they are now "over there" and ready at the firing line. When the draft was called, Mr. Secretary, we had furnished so many men from our State that we had seven counties that were not subject to the first draft call at all.

We are 100 per cent American in the State of Wyoming, and we are going to remain 100 per cent American. We have gone over the top on every contribution and everything else that we have been asked to do—the Young Men's Christian Association, the Liberty Loan, and everything else. When you get your machinery in readiness and some concrete system that you want to carry out throughout the United States, Wyoming will be there, sir, to support you.

Secretary Lane. Gov. Hunt, of Arizona.

Gov. Hunt. Mr. Chairman, ladies, and gentlemen, the baby State that produces the copper has 7,000 men in the field under the colors of the United States, and the people of Arizona are behind these men, and we are going to be behind them until we win the war.

Secretary Lane. Now, I want to present to you the head of the Bureau of Education, who has charge of this work, Dr. Claxton.

Dr. Claxton. Ladies and gentlemen, I know the purpose of the Secretary, out of which this conference came. He referred to the fact that this purpose is not new. Before the present Secretary came into office Congress was asked to make an appropriation to enable the Bureau of Education to promote a campaign to banish illiteracy from the United States. A bill making a small appropriation for this purpose is now pending in both Houses. For four or five years, with the approval of the Secretary and with the cooperation of the Americanization committee, there has been maintained in the Bureau of Education a small division through which we have promoted the cause of Americanization.

We should give to the people who come to our shores ample opportunity to learn the English language, the common language of communication in this country, and we should do all we can to induce them to take advantage of the opportunities offered. We should try to teach these people something of the country to which they have come. For hundreds of thousands of them there is nothing beyond the Palisades of the Hudson. They know nothing of the wheat fields of the West, the cotton fields of the South, the fruit-growing sections of the far West; nothing of mountains and valleys, hills and plains, fields and forests, rivers and waterfalls. We should teach them something of the history of the country, something of its marvelous growth and development, something of the principles for which we have been willing to fight and to die whenever it has been necessary. Only thus may we expect them to gain an understanding of our country and of its ideals. Americanization is an entering into the spirit of the country, as the Secretary has so well said.

The crisis through which we are now passing has called our attention to the weakness and the dangers that spring from our neglect of the education of our own people and the proper instruction of those who come to us from abroad. The Secretary of Agriculture is sending out millions of dollars worth of bulletins, urging farmers to produce more food and telling them how to do so; but two and a half million farmers can not read a word of them, and nearly twice as many read with such difficulty that they make little or no use of these bulletins. We are drafting men into the Army who can not understand a word of the commands, and others who can not read any order, direction, or sign, or make any memorandum of anything which they are told or which they see. Until April of last year such men were not admitted into the Army for the reason that it requires an unusual amount of time to drill and train them, and the further reason that most of them can not be made into good and intelligent soldiers. The first draft brought more than 40,000 of them, and in every cantonment one is told the same story of the difficulty of training them, their inefficiency, and the attempts to shift them from one command to another. In a certain encampment I was told that one commander of a machine-gun corps asked for additional men, and a group of illiterates and foreigners were sent him from the Infantry, but after a few days 137 of them were sent back to the Infantry from which they had been sent, because they could not be taught quickly and effectively to handle a machine gun. They could not understand the language of their instructors. We are beginning to learn that the sins of omission must be paid for and are costly. At this time, when these truths are being driven home for us, the Secretary has thought that it would be proper to call this conference to inaugurate a Nation-wide movement for making plans and obtaining means for the instruction of these people.

The Secretary is right. Americanization can come only through teaching. We must win the mind and heart of the people for the country and its institutions and ideals. This can not be done by force or compulsion. Americanism can never be obtained through processes of Prussianism. The ways of democracy are not the ways of militaristic autocracy. The prayer of the negro preacher, "Oh, Lord, come down with a sledge hammer in each hand and beat 'ligion into these niggers' souls," can never be answered. It does not come in this way. The spirit of freedom and of love for the institutions of democracy that will lead a man to die for them can not be created by force. It must be fostered by sympathy, love, and intelligent leadership. Force, compulsion, and restraint may be necessary for immediate protection against disloyalty, and, when necessary, they must be used, but they are effective only for temporary restraint; they have little value for the promotion of permanent good citizenship and less value in giving an understanding of our reasons for being in this war and the principles for which we are fighting.

We have entered this war in no spirit of selfishness. We have disclaimed in advance all indemnity and all accessions of territory. Neither did we enter it for protection against immediate invasion. The President, whose voice is the clearest that has spoken to this generation, has told us that we have entered it for the same purpose that we fought the Revolution, the War between the States, and the War against Spain—for the freedom of man; for the preservation of the inalienable rights of life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness; that the world may be made safe for democracy and that all the world may be free, and that government of the people, by the people, for the people may extend to all the earth.

Having entered in this spirit, and for this purpose, we can not end the war, cost what it may, to be paid in whatever coin it must, until this spirit triumphs and these ends are secured. The war can not end so long as any irresponsible government can wield a nation of seventy or one hundred and twenty millions of people as a giant wields a club or an officer wields a sword, unthinking and unresisting. There can be no safety for democracy, no security of freedom until such governments have passed from the earth. Nor can there be any beginning of democracy among nations, nor any guarantee of the inalienable rights of nations to exist and pursue their happiness unmolested so long as they do not interfere with the rightful progress and freedom and happiness of other peoples. Should a patched-up peace be made with Germany now, within a generation she would have organized into an autocratic militaristic empire, two hundred millions of people or more, and would have given to them all at least some degree of the efficiency which, through 40 years and more of skillful training, she has given to the sixty-seven millions of the present German Empire. With this increase of strength there would come an increase of the domineering spirit of the Empire and the struggle between autocracy and democracy would begin anew. The war would have to be fought over again and on a scale much larger than that of the present one. Therefore the battle for freedom must be fought out now. It may be long—2, 3, 4, 5, or 10 years. It behooves us, therefore, that we should do everything possible to unite our people in spirit and understanding and in effort. The work begun here today should contribute much toward this. Through it there should be constant improvement in spirit and understanding, and these people, who have come from all the world to live among us, should rapidly become an integral and vital part of us.

Most of these people have not yet known what democracy really is. They must be taught. Many of them do not understand our language and are therefore isolated from the great current of American thought. They must be given an opportunity to learn the language and induced to take advantage of the opportunity. They know little of our history, our ideals, our manners and customs, and of the demands of American social and civic life. They must be informed. If we do this work well, we shall be stronger for the war and its tasks. When the war is over and peace comes we shall have here in America a great democratic people of more than one hundred million capable of playing their part well in the front rank of the democratic nations of the world. We shall be better able to show the world the real meaning of democracy and to illustrate its worth.

I am greatly interested in this important movement and have had something to do with bringing this conference here. I wish to thank you for responding so generously to the Secretary's invitation. I feel sure that we shall have your hearty cooperation in the campaign for Americanization through instruction, leadership, and the uplift of spirit.

Secretary LANE. Now, may I say one word to you about the man who is our leader, the Commander in Chief of the Army and the Navy of the United States, clear-sighted, far-sighted, upward-looking, strong-souled, determined Woodrow Wilson. In his honor let us sing one verse of "My Country 'Tis of Thee" and close.

The hymn was sung, and at 6.30 o'clock p. m. the meeting was closed.

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Harvard Univer
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DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR
BUREAU OF EDUCATION

BULLETIN, 1918, No. 19

VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE IN SECONDARY EDUCATION

A REPORT OF THE COMMISSION ON THE REORGANIZATION
OF SECONDARY EDUCATION APPOINTED BY THE
NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

WASHINGTON
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE
1918

BULLETIN OF THE BUREAU OF EDUCATION.

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LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL.

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
BUREAU OF EDUCATION,
Washington, July 18, 1918.

SIR: In no other country in the world do so many boys and girls receive regular high-school education of a general cultural type as in the United States and the number of such boys and girls in this country is rapidly increasing, having more than doubled since 1905 and increased more than 60 per cent since 1910. But American democratic ideals demand not only that all should have as nearly as possible equal opportunity for education, but also that all men and women should be employed in that form of work by which they may contribute most to their own happiness and to the common good. In our complex industrial and economic life, it is little less wasteful to leave boys and girls without assistance and guidance in selecting their occupations and finding employment than it would be to leave them unaided in obtaining education. Both are necessary for the highest good to individual and society. But as yet we have had less experience in vocational guidance than we have had in education, and its principles are not so well known as are the principles of education. For these reasons the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education appointed by the National Education Association and cooperating with this bureau has included the subject of vocational guidance in secondary education in its investigations. I recommend that the report on this subject submitted herewith be published as a Bulletin of the Bureau of Education.

Respectfully submitted.

P. P. CLAXTON,
Commissioner.

The SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR.

PREFACE.

The Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education holds that vocational guidance is an essential function of the secondary school. Unless plans for such guidance are thoroughly incorporated and continuously exercised, the efforts of the school in behalf of the youth in its charge will be largely misdirected.

The social and cultural significance of vocational guidance is due to the conception of vocation as a means not only of earning a livelihood, but also of serving society and of developing the personality of the worker. As stated by the reviewing committee of this commission in its forthcoming report:

> Vocational education should equip the individual to secure a livelihood for himself and those dependent on him, to serve society well through his vocation, to maintain the right relationships toward his fellow workers and society, and, as far as possible, to find in that vocation his own best development.
>
> This ideal demands that the pupil explore his own capacities and aptitudes and make a survey of the world's work to the end that he may select his vocation wisely. Hence, an effective program of vocational guidance in the secondary school is essential.

The term vocational guidance has been seriously misconstrued. It is the purpose of this report to correct such misconceptions and to outline a comprehensive plan for exercising proper vocational guidance.

Attention is called in particular to the scope of the program recommended whereby the secondary school becomes responsible for the vocational adjustment of all young people of secondary school age, whether in school or at work.

The report contained in this bulletin was drafted for the commission by its committee on vocational guidance, and after discussion and revision it has been approved by both the committee on vocational guidance and the reviewing committee. Approval by the reviewing committee does not commit every member individually to every statement and every implied educational doctrine, but does mean essential agreement as a committee with the general recommendations.

CLARENCE D. KINGSLEY,
Chairman of the Commission.

COMMITTEE ON VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE.

Frank Mitchell Leavitt, chairman, associate superintendent of schools, Pittsburgh, Pa.
Frederick J. Allen, bureau of vocational guidance, division of education, Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass.
John M. Brewer, Normal School, Los Angeles, Cal.
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E. George Payne, principal, Teachers' College, St. Louis, Mo.
Eli W. Weaver, Boys' High School, Brooklyn, N. Y.
Laura F. Wentworth, vocational director, High School of Practical Arts, Boston, Mass.

THE REVIEWING COMMITTEE OF THE COMMISSION ON THE REORGANIZATION OF SECONDARY EDUCATION.

(The Reviewing Committee consists of 26 members, of whom 16 are chairmen of committees and 10 are members at large.)

Chairman of the Commission and of the Reviewing Committee:
Clarence D. Kingsley, State high-school inspector, Boston, Mass.

Members at large:
Hon. P. P. Claxton, United States Commissioner of Education, Washington, D. C.
Thomas H. Briggs, associate professor of education, Teachers' College, Columbia University, New York City.
Alexander Inglis, assistant professor of education, in charge of secondary education, Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass.
Henry Neumann, Ethical Culture School, New York City.
William Orr, senior educational secretary, international Y. M. C. A. committee, 104 East Twenty-eighth Street, New York City.
William B. Owen, principal, Chicago Normal College, Chicago, Ill.
Edward O. Sisson, president, University of Montana, Missoula, Mont.
Joseph S. Stewart, professor of secondary education, University of Georgia, Athens, Ga.
Milo H. Stuart, principal, Technical High School, Indianapolis, Ind.
H. L. Terry, State high-school inspector, Madison, Wis.

Chairmen of committees:
Organization and administration of secondary education—Charles Hughes Johnston,[1] professor of secondary education, University of Illinois, Urbana, Ill.
Agriculture—A. V. Storm, professor of agricultural education, University of Minnesota, St. Paul, Minn.
Art Education—Henry Turner Bailey, dean, Cleveland School of Art, Cleveland, Ohio.
Articulation of High School and College—Clarence D. Kingsley, State high-school inspector, Boston, Mass.
Business Education—Cheesman A. Herrick, president Girard College, Philadelphia, Pa.

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[1] Deceased Sept. 4, 1917.

Chairmen of committees—Continued.

Classical Languages—Walter Eugene Foster, Stuyvesant High School, New York City.

English—James Fleming Hosic, Chicago Normal College, Chicago, Ill.

Household Arts—Mrs. Henrietta W. Calvin, United States Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C.

Industrial Arts—Wilson H. Henderson, extension division, University of Wisconsin, Milwaukee, Wis.

Mathematics—William Heard Kilpatrick, associate professor of education, Teachers' College, Columbia University, New York City.

Modern Languages—Edward Manley, Englewood High School, Chicago, Ill.

Music—Will Earhart, director of music, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Physical Education—James H. McCurdy, director of normal courses of physical education, International Y. M. C. A. College, Springfield, Mass. [Now in France, in charge of Y. M. C. A. recreation work.]

Sciences—Otis W. Caldwell, director, Lincoln School, and professor of education, Teachers' College, Columbia University, New York City.

Social Studies—Thomas Jesse Jones, United States Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C.

Vocational Guidance—Frank M. Leavitt, associate superintendent of schools, Pittsburgh, Pa.

VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE IN SECONDARY EDUCATION.

SECTION I.—PURPOSE OF THE REPORT.

The purpose of this report is to outline a comprehensive plan for vocational guidance as an integral part of secondary education,[1] and to indicate the responsibility of the secondary school for the vocational adjustment of all pupils of secondary school age whether in school or at work.

The committee hopes that this report will stimulate interest and promote experimentation, and that the suggestions offered will be helpful not only to school administrators and those assigned to special duties in the field of vocational guidance, but also to teachers who through daily contact with young people have opportunity to counsel and inspire them.

SECTION II.—MEANING AND PURPOSE OF VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE.

Certain activities now classified as vocational guidance have been carried on in the past by individual teachers for individual pupils. Within the past decade marked progress has been made in organizing, developing, and systematizing these activities.

It is not the purpose of vocational guidance to decide for young people in advance what occupation they should follow, nor to project them into life's work at the earliest possible moment, nor to classify them prematurely by any system of analysis, either psychological, physiological, social, or economic.

Vocational guidance should be a continuous process designed to help the individual to choose, to plan his preparation for, to enter upon, and to make progress in an occupation. It calls for a progressive improvement of the public-school system and a fuller and more intelligent utilization of its richly diversified offerings. It requires a more accurate adjustment between the school and all worthy vocations. For some children it demands a plan of continuation education and supervision in employment by educational authorities. It should develop an interest in the conditions prevailing in the child-employing industries and bring about improvement of those conditions. It should utilize the cooperation of all social-service agencies that can be of assistance. For society at large it should result in a more democratic school system, a wiser economy in the expenditure of school time, and a more genuine culture.

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[1] In this report the term secondary education refers to both junior and senior high schools. In school systems having eight-year elementary schools, the vocational guidance needs of pupils in the seventh and eighth grades call for much that is recommended herein.

Many people, not only teachers, but also employers and business men, have an idea that in some mysterious way we can look into the future, determine what each child should be, and prepare him specifically for that ultimate end. This is a false conception, unsupported by psychology and contrary to the principles of democracy. Vocational guidance, properly conceived, organizes school work so that the pupil may be helped to discover his own capacities, aptitudes, and interests, may learn about the character and conditions of occupational life, and may himself arrive at an intelligent vocational decision. In other words, vocational guidance, while not ignoring the proper functions of personal counsel, emphasizes vocational decision by rather than for the pupil and prefers to ascertain his capacities, aptitudes, and interests through, rather than before, contacts with vocational activities. Since we can not look into the future, we must attempt to prepare young people so that they can make each decision more wisely when the need for such decision arises. Therefore, vocational guidance, rightly conceived, does not involve deciding for young people what occupation they should follow, nor projecting them into life's work at the earliest possible moment, nor classifying them prematurely by any system of analysis.

Advice given by commercial agencies, or by persons or organizations or schools lacking sound educational philosophy and the social perspective necessary to conserve the interests of democracy, is neither safe nor adequate.

The school must teach the youth not only how to adjust himself to his environment, but also how to change that environment when the need arises. Guidance that helps only a few individuals to succeed might produce a competitive system even more relentless than that of the present day. Vocational guidance should help in bringing about a cooperative solution of the problems of economic and social life, and should help the largest possible number of individuals.

If wisely directed, vocational guidance will greatly improve the schools themselves by making them more responsive to the social and economic needs of the pupils and of society. Like most educational advances, its chief dangers lie on the one hand in the extravagant claims of too zealous promoters and on the other hand in the unreasoning skepticism of the ultra-conservative. Somewhere between these two extremes should be found a reasonable program that will command the support and respect of thoughtful educators everywhere.

SECTION III.—LIMITATIONS OF THE FIELD OF THE REPORT.

This report deals primarily with the needs of youth between 12 and 18 years of age, whether in school or at work.

The ideals of vocational guidance, however, can not be satisfactorily attained without remodeling the instruction of the first six school years. Elementary education should be so organized as to give some knowledge of occupations and afford opportunity for a wide variety of experience or activities having vocational significance. Defects in the elementary school and in the economic situation are inducing young people to leave school prematurely. Changes, therefore, should be effected in the elementary school program and every effort should be made to lead pupils, parents, and employers to realize the importance of longer schooling.

Moreover, a few organizations of genuinely social character are studying the problems of vocational adjustment for adults. Their experience can be of immense service to school counselors in many ways. Cooperation with such organizations is commended.

For the vocational guidance of young people between 12 and 18 years of age, however, the school must assume the major responsibility. Its duties are immediate as well as remote. The school should interest itself in the earlier vocational experiences of all the youth of the community. In other words, providing for a "start in life" is the school's immediate concern. In developing a program of vocational guidance, therefore, it is necessary to distinguish clearly between the immediate and the ultimate purpose. A common criticism of our schools in general is that their aims are too remote to fix the attention and to hold the interest of most pupils. To fall into that error in inaugurating a system of vocational guidance would be fatal to the success of the movement. While the ultimate purpose should lead to the giving of much that is inspirational and illuminating, the immediate purpose must not be neglected by those who are to provide the practical plans.

SECTION IV.—A BRIEF DESCRIPTION OF VARIOUS VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE PLANS.

The Committee on Vocational Guidance is dealing with problems radically different from those confronting the other committees of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education. In this instance the problem is not primarily that of reorganization, because the established plans in this field are few and recent. Moreover, there are few accepted standards by which to measure these new theories and programs. Such standards as have been formulated are buttressed mainly by opinion.

Plans presented in this section have been devised in various parts of the country, under widely differing circumstances, in the attempt to solve not the whole problem but, in each case, some part of it that seemed particularly important to an individual worker. Hence the theories, arguments, and practices here described are those of pioneers.

Guidance can best be given only when the plan for exercising it begins before the probable time of leaving school, helps the pupil across the gulf that now separates the school from occupational life, and finally accompanies him upon his new pathway until he is competent to direct himself in his new environment. One method of classifying vocational guidance plans, therefore, is to consider them in relation to the time when pupils leave school. In the following analysis three major groups of pupils are described. It should be understood at the outset that this is a hypothetical classification, and that the committee does not advise nor contemplate the segregation of these groups in actual practice. Nor does the committee intend that any good thing suggested for one group should be withheld from individuals in another group.

(*a*) One group leaves school at the termination of the compulsory age limit, 14 years in most States, in the majority of cases with less than eight grades of training. While individual differences in capacities, ambitions, and opportunities will result in widely differing success in later life, and while differentiation of school work would reveal special aptitudes, provide special training, and call for special forms of vocational guidance in consequence, in the main the vocational guidance needs of the several members of this group are similar in the early occupational years, and the same general method of exercising such guidance is appropriate for all. This method may be designated as "employment supervision." This group also needs some instruction in occupational problems before leaving school and compulsory continuation school work after entering employment.

(*b*) A second group is composed of pupils who will remain in school from four to six years beyond the sixth grade, but will not enter higher educational institutions. This includes both the "drop-outs" and the majority of the graduates of the four-year high school. While individual differences will ultimately distribute this group widely, they have special need for "guidance in choice of curriculum," "vocational information," and "placement." The value of vocational information and placement will be enhanced manyfold by the presence in the junior high school of prevocational work and in the senior high school of curriculums with genuine vocational content.

(*c*) A third group is on its way to higher educational institutions. The special duty of the secondary school for them is guidance in the choice of curriculum, of elective courses within the curriculum chosen, and of the higher institution to be attended. Such guidance should make the pupil more intelligent regarding the general characteristics of many vocations, more sensitive to, and appreciative of, his own peculiar aptitudes, opportunities, and duties, and better informed regarding the rich offerings now afforded by secondary schools and by higher institutions of learning.

1. EMPLOYMENT SUPERVISION.

Excellent experimental work has been done in "employment supervision." This work has shown that for the sake of society as well as for the sake of young persons in employment, even more solicitous care should be given to them because they have entered upon the exacting duties of occupational life. That children are at work is no reason why they do not need education, though they may need a different kind of education. The committee recognizes that these children should still be wards of the school system and continue to receive the benefits of its training and instruction through part-time attendance at school to be required by legislation. It has been shown that they may be so guided in their labors that they will get much education out of their daily occupations, and that this is not likely to result unless they are carefully and intelligently supervised by the educational authorities. Such supervision tends to establish better cooperation between the schools and employers, and with labor unions as far as child labor is concerned.

Whatever may be possible in the way of advancement for individual members of this group, the majority will enter, for a time at least, the ranks of the industrial army, and their ultimate success will depend upon their ability to understand their conditions and to make the most out of the opportunity that these conditions present, both for work and for leisure. How has this been accomplished? A careful study of the occupations of the children of this group reveals the fact that, of necessity, there must be considerable migration from job to job. Some work is seasonal, some is only temporary, while some has no future and is so monotonous that it ought not to be long endured. While the results of this migration may be harmful, and frequently are, there are educational possibilities in such variety of occupation, and these possibilities are multiplied when the school authorities are in a position to control the changes to some extent, to prevent the individual from remaining too long in a "dead end" job, to advise against undue and unnecessary "job hoboism," and to counsel the individual whenever a change is made. The education that these young people get from their daily toil is greatly enhanced when the school authorities assume the responsibility of guiding and counseling them. At least one of the large cities has appointed a school officer whose title is "employment supervisor."

In some places continuation classes are maintained without exercising employment supervision as described above, and conversely in other places employment supervision is exercised without maintaining continuation classes. To secure the greatest returns from either, however, it has been found that the two should be linked together and it is preferable that they be directed by the same school official. Since employment supervision applies to persons of secondary school age, it should be developed in connection with both junior and senior high schools.

2. VOCATIONAL INFORMATION.

Perhaps the most important phase of vocational guidance at present conducted in the four-year high school is that designated as "vocational information." Interesting experiments have demonstrated beyond a doubt that it is desirable to collect and to impart information about vocations, and to show the connection between these vocations and the various subjects of instruction in the high school program, and to do it in such a way as to cause the whole high school situation to take on a new aspect, both to the pupils and to the teachers. Even the academic courses have been vitalized by the vocational motive.

Methods of collecting information about vocations and occupational life are numerous and varied. In some instances private philanthropic organizations have prepared studies of several occupations and presented them to the public school for distribution. In other cases a similar service has been performed by the local chamber of commerce or board of trade. Libraries also have cooperated with the public schools in making such material easily available for the use of pupils.

Some schools have developed credit courses in "occupations." During the past two or three years a number of books have appeared, some of which may be used as textbooks, and others as reference books. In these courses trips are made to industrial plants and business offices and a great variety of occupations and professions is studied. This work is in many places made a part of the course in community civics.

Other schools are systematically devoting a part of the work in English to vocational themes, oral and written. By this method all the pupils in the school are helped to a thoughtful and intelligent attitude toward the problems of vocational selection and preparation.

Other subjects in the program have been broadened in many schools so as to give an outlook upon industries and vocational life.

Numerous plans are now employed for bringing the pupils into more intimate contact with men and women who represent the local business community. Among these are the following: Junior associations of commerce and vocational clubs; talks on vocations by local business men and women; and systematic placement in temporary employment as a part of their education.

3. PLACEMENT.

Placement increases the sense of responsibility of both the school and the employer for the success of the school-trained child in his early occupational life. It is especially important for children in group (*b*).

In a few cities the employment departments of the Y. M. C. A. and Y. W. C. A. and free public employment bureaus work in hearty cooperation with the public schools. While often efficient, these bureaus serve only a small minority of the persons needing such service.

Several cities have established school placement bureaus. The plans for such bureaus differ widely. In some places the machinery for registering pupils and positions is as elaborate as that of private employment agencies. In other places the bureau merely invites employers to consult them when in need of youthful help and urges pupils to consult the bureau before seeking work. Experience has shown that the school placement bureau must keep accurate records of its work in order that the bureau and the schools may become more intelligent in methods of placement and education.

Whatever the plan, be it simple or elaborate, the school is the proper guide and protector of the child, and the best way in which to get a good position is through the disinterested services of the school. The best results of placement can not be secured, however, unless an organized effort is made to retain children in school as long as possible. Experience with school placement bureaus has demonstrated that no city can afford not to have such a bureau, or if the city be small, to have the duties of such a bureau performed by the part-time service of a teacher or other school official.

4. GUIDANCE IN CHOICE OF CURRICULUM.

Guidance with reference to the choice of curriculum and electives within curriculums is now recognized as of great importance for all pupils in the secondary school, whether or not they are going to a higher educational institution. Too frequently is secondary education conceived entirely as training for some already chosen career. Early choices are regarded, however, in many schools as provisional and encouragement is given to the pupils to revise their early choices whenever they gain a clearer insight into their own needs, aptitudes, and capacities.

For those who are to have an extended education reaching into the college or other higher institution, employment supervision and placement are obviously inappropriate, at least as far as the secondary school is concerned. The courses in "vocational information" or "occupations," however, are proving valuable for these pupils. Such courses are and should be so taught as to have great civic and ethical value and the information they give can not be obtained in college courses as at present organized. Furthermore, agriculture, commerce, and industry are calling more and more for college trained men and women, a fact that should be called to the attention of young people while they are in high school.

High-school pupils who can continue their education beyond the secondary school need accurate information regarding managerial and professional careers, the opportunities that they offer, the extent and nature of the preparation demanded, the financial resources needed for this preparation, and for the lean years of early professional service, as well as detailed advice regarding the various educational institutions where preparation may be obtained, together with the requirements and advantages of each.

SECTION V.—VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE PROGRAM RECOMMENDED.

No system of vocational guidance now employed is complete and adequate, but the committee recommends the following as a reasonable and comprehensive vocational guidance program. The eight steps in this program are evolved from a careful study of the philosophy underlying the vocational education movement:

1. Survey of the world's work.
2. Studying and testing pupils' possibilities.
3. Guidance in choice and rechoice of vocation.
4. Guidance with reference to preparation for vocation.
5. Guidance in entering upon work; that is, "placement."
6. Guidance in employment; that is, "employment supervision."
7. Progressive modification of school practices.
8. Progressive modification of economic conditions.

1. SURVEY OF THE WORLD'S WORK.

In an adequate program the spirit of vocational guidance will be manifested in the whole system of administration. Such a spirit will call for a broad program of studies, especially in the years of the junior high school, and will protest against too narrowly restricted or too highly specialized curriculums in the senior high school. Every curriculum should provide sufficient diversity to give pupils as wide experience as the limitations of time and school conditions will permit. The school should also give a vocational interpretation to these experiences.

The committee recommends the Grand Rapids plan for the intelligent use of a part of the work in English composition to develop a thoughtful attitude on the part of the pupil toward the problems of wise choice of and adequate preparation for vocation. The reader is referred to the report of the Committee on English[1] and to the chapter on "Educational Guidance" in the forthcoming report of the Committee on Organization and Administration of Secondary Education. Other reports also will show how the several secondary school subjects may be so broadened as to give vocational outlook.

The committee also recommends specific courses, appropriate for the age, grade, and conditions of the pupils, designed to give systematic instruction regarding such phases of the world's work as can be brought within the comprehension of the class. Emphasis should be given to aspects likely to influence in any important way the later choice of occupation. Such courses obviously should describe the conditions of work, the relation to the health of the worker, the financial returns, and the opportunities for advancement. They should emphasize particularly the value of the service to society and the effect of the occupation upon the growth and development of the worker.

The study of occupations should assist individual pupils to discover and develop special interests. While this purpose can be realized most effectively where the program offers opportunity for wide experimentation or "sampling," yet much can be accomplished by the course itself, especially if effective illustrative material is provided. An important phase of this course is the first-hand study of occupations by the pupils themselves. Local occupations are the ones most advantageously studied by this method, but not all such occupations can be studied in the same detail. The following outline, based upon successful experience, could with slight modification be used effectively in almost any school:

OUTLINE FOR THE STUDY OF A VOCATION.

I. General statement concerning the vocation:

  1. Value of the vocation as a social service.
  2. Duties of one engaged in it.
  3. Number engaged in it in local community.
  4. Relative number engaged in it in general, with its probable future development.
  5. Relative capital invested in it.

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[1] Bulletin, 1917, No. 2, U. S. Bureau of Education, pp. 143–147.

II. Personal qualities demanded:
  1. Qualities of manner, temperament, character.
  2. Mental ability.
  3. Physical demands.
III. Preparation required:
  1. General education.
  2. Special or vocational education.
  3. Apprenticeship conditions.
  4. Experience required.
IV. Wages earned by workers:
  1. Range of wages made (table showing distribution of all cases).
  2. Average wage per week.
  3. Relation of wage to length of experience and preparation.
V. Length of working season, working week, working day, etc.
VI. Health of the workers:
  1. Healthful or unhealthful conditions.
  2. Dangers, accidents, or risks.
VII. Opportunities for employment:
  1. In local community.
  2. In general.
VIII. Organization of the industry, including the relations of the worker to his fellow workers, his employers, and the community.
IX. Status of the workers:
  1. Opportunities for advancement.
  2. Time for recreation and enjoyment.
  3. Adequate income for recreation and the comforts of life.
  4. Any other items of peculiar interest in this connection.
X. Biographies of leaders in the vocation.

2. STUDYING AND TESTING PUPILS' POSSIBILITIES.

Obviously individuals differ widely in their aptitudes, capacities for work, and other characteristics. An adequate vocational guidance program should develop the pupil to the point where he will appreciate this fact and will be able to evaluate, to some extent, at least, his own capabilities. While some people overcome by training what appear to be temperamental and physical obstacles, it is best, other things being equal, for each individual to engage in that work for which he is best adapted. It is a simple matter to state the principle, but actual accomplishment in this field is meager. The technique of studying the problems involved has not been developed, and, in fact, has hardly been discussed. Should the individual himself bear the entire responsibility of discovering his aptitudes, presumably in later life and after experience with the trial and error method, or should responsibility be shared by the school, at present almost equally unprepared, but with great opportunities for developing a technique if it will only address itself intelligently to the task?

One of the most effective and available means of studying and testing pupils' possibilities is through "sampling" and "try-out" courses. These are especially appropriate in the junior high-school period. They should not be confined to the industrial courses, but every pupil should have some experience in a wide variety of activities. Home gardens may give some taste of agriculture; typewriting, business projects, and the keeping of accounts may give an insight into clerical and business pursuits; while handwork and industrial arts may reveal aptitudes in artisanship and mechanics. Surely the capacity to write and speak and interest in history, science, mathematics, and languages should be looked for and, when found, regarded as significant.

Extra classroom activities should be utilized as a means of discovering aptitudes. For instance, debating societies, especially when organized as city council, State legislature, or Congress, test powers of leadership; the school paper tests ability for journalism; the dramatic society may reveal qualities useful on platform or stage; and the management of an athletic team or school paper may disclose business ability. Moreover, these and other extra classroom activities have almost unlimited possibilities for giving contacts with different phases of adult activities.

Until social and economic conditions are immensely improved many children will leave school prematurely. The relation of mentality to early leaving has been studied for many years in the school system in Cincinnati. The school authorities of that city have been convinced that the schools should study the pupils for the purpose of discovering and recognizing the cases of low mentality two or three years prior to the time when the children are likely to leave school. In support of this policy the following considerations, among others, are given:

First, a very large proportion of the group that drops out early are badly retarded in school. With a 14 age limit, 66 per cent of those leaving school in Cincinnati between 14 and 16 were more than a year retarded. When the age limit was raised to 15 for boys and to 16 for girls, the retardation, figured on the same basis, rose to 80 per cent.

Second, a comparison of the children who left school in Cincinnati at 14 years with a corresponding group who were intending to remain in school showed that the children intending to remain were superior in every mental and physical measurement made. The difference was large at 14 years, and still larger at 15. The results were not yet summed up beyond 15 years, but it is believed that in general the difference is a progressive one.

Third, this same group of industrial workers in Cincinnati, when subjected to psychological tests at 18 years, contained 42 per cent who were materially below the norms for their age. The results seemed to indicate the mental inferiority of the majority of the children who left school as early as they were allowed.

Fourth, the studies so far made of the relative ranks of school children at various ages tend to establish the theory that wide differences in mental ability display themselves early in a school career; that the children at the foot of the class in early grades are, on the whole, those who become retarded and leave school early; and that those in the upper portion of the class in the early grades generally continue to lead the class and to go on in school after the compulsory school age. When the judgment of the school is supplemented and corrected by careful experimental measurements, it becomes safer to form a judgment about the probable length of a school career.

In view of these facts it seems to many persons that the school should, a few years before the end of the compulsory school age, select, or rather recognize, those children whose inferior mental ability is likely to be a factor in sending them into industry at the earliest possible moment. Is it not, therefore, desirable to modify the course of instruction for this group of children, provided they can be recognized early enough?

3. GUIDANCE IN CHOICE AND RECHOICE OF A VOCATION.

The choice of a vocation by the pupil should follow some study of the world's work and some attempt on his part to ascertain his own aptitudes. He should make such a choice early enough to enable him to make some preparation for that vocation before leaving school. One of the main advantages of an early choice is that it gives definite purpose to much school work and gives the pupil vital interests around which he will organize many ideas which otherwise would make but passing impression upon him.

It is of the greatest importance that these early choices should be regarded by both pupil and school as provisional. There should be every encouragement for the pupil to revise his choice whenever increased insight into either the world's work or his own aptitudes or a new conception of service to be rendered indicates that some other vocation would be preferable. For this reason, among others, curriculums should be so organized as to permit change from one to another with the minimum of loss, and all curriculums should be conducted in the same high school, so that pupils may be encouraged and not hindered in making desirable readjustments.[1]

Early choices may well be between wide fields of activity rather than between specific vocations, or the pupil may fix his attention upon four or five vocations which appeal to him. As he progresses his choice may be narrowed to a specific vocation.

While these choices should be made by the pupil himself, nevertheless the school should exercise guidance to the extent of urging a thoughtful attitude, of helping the pupil to correct and verify his impressions, and of giving him the principles underlying wise choice.

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[1] See the forthcoming report of this commission entitled, "Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education."

4. GUIDANCE WITH REFERENCE TO PREPARATION FOR A VOCATION.

For the pupil who has made even a preliminary choice of a vocation the school should give careful advice regarding the subjects of study to be taken. This educational guidance, however, should not be administered in a narrow or short-sighted manner. Vocational preparation is only one of the valid objectives of education and too exclusive attention to this objective is not only socially disastrous, but also defeats even vocational efficiency. For a discussion of the valid objectives of education the reader is referred to the forthcoming report of the reviewing committee of this commission. Vocational education should take into consideration also the need for adaptability to changing economic conditions.

For the pupil who intends to enter a higher institution, the school should seek to give the broadest education consistent with the valid demands of the type of higher education which the pupil desires to pursue. The education of high-school pupils should not be narrowed because some particular higher institution which the pupil may possibly enter sets up arbitrary and narrow standards. The responsibility for such standards must be borne by the higher institution itself and not be allowed to distort secondary education.

For the pupil who has neither chosen a vocation nor decided to enter a higher institution, the school should offer a variety of work intended to help him form an intelligent purpose.

All pupils should, through the courses in civics, become acquainted with the opportunities for continued education, such as libraries, public lectures, and forums. Those who leave school during the high-school period should have their attention called specifically to opportunities for continuation education in both public and private day and evening schools.

5. GUIDANCE IN ENTERING WORK—THAT IS, "PLACEMENT."

Briefly stated, the purpose of placement is to bring a youth desiring work into contact with the employer seeking some one to fill a position and to see that the characteristics of the young person and the requirements of the position promise success for the youth and satisfaction for all concerned.

Much that has been said in Section IV regarding placement is pertinent here. Each school system should develop its own type of placement.

The highly organized placement bureau is not appropriate for a village school, nor is it necessary. Here the placement may be secured through the personal interest of the teachers and their acquaintance with employers in the community. In order, however, to develop placement to the highest efficiency in such communities, some systematic plan must be made for interesting the employers in the school product. The details of such a plan would vary with the local conditions.

6. GUIDANCE IN EMPLOYMENT—THAT IS, "EMPLOYMENT SUPERVISION."

An adequate vocational guidance program will require that all children under 18 years of age shall be under the supervision of the educational authorities, whether the children are in school or have gone to work. The registration of all working children under that age with the school authorities should be compulsory. Reports by the employers and visits of inspection by school officers at frequent intervals should also be required.

These children who have gone to work are sorely in need of continued education adapted to their special needs. The establishment of such continuation classes and the attendance of all employed children under 18 should be made compulsory by law.

All that is presented in Section IV under the head of "Employment supervision" and the reference in this section to information regarding opportunities for education in evening schools are pertinent to "Guidance in employment."

Under present conditions the first occupation chosen by a young person is not likely to be the one which finally becomes his life work. This is true particularly of those who choose earliest and with the least preparation for vocational life. When a youth stays in school until he is 18 or 19 years of age, the opportunities for a wise and deliberate choice are greatly improved. Even in such cases, however, unfitness or unsuitability of the worker for the position is often discovered later and the desirability of a readjustment is demonstrated.

Early changes by the younger and untrained workers are not necessarily bad. While grave dangers attend "job hoboism," early changes, if properly supervised, may give a kind of vocational training through a "wandering apprenticeship." Mrs. Woolley has pointed out that those who make several changes in the early and relatively uneducative positions secure, as a group, higher wages than those who stay too long in their first place. She says, "Children who display an excessive amount of shifting in industry—as much as seven or eight times during the first two years—are inferior. They belong to the worst retarded group, and these numerous changes do not tend to result in higher earning capacity. The group of children who change positions three or four times during the first two years increase their earning capacity as compared with the corresponding group who remain in the same position."

The school should assume its full share of responsibility in helping young people to choose their positions, where necessary, in helping them in their early readjustments. This responsibility will be met in part by giving information, by providing training, by placement, or by employment supervision; but it will not be met adequately until the school induces the pupil and parents to consider for themselves the problems of vocational selection.

7. PROGRESSIVE MODIFICATION OF SCHOOL PRACTICES.

As indicated in other parts of the report, the inauguration of an effective vocational guidance plan should be of great value to the school system. It should lead the school to modify its practices from time to time without waiting for an educational revolution. It should prevent the school from making the mistakes incident to the enthusiastic development of special courses or curriculums in the hands of specialists without due regard to the real demands of the industrial and economic situation generally. Such mistakes have resulted at times in overcrowding certain vocations and absolutely neglecting others, to the great disadvantage of young workers. The vocational guidance department is in a position to criticize effectively the training offered in the school through its study of the way in which the school product succeeds or fails when subjected to the test of actual service. Another result of this check system should be the modification of high-school work on the basis of the power evidenced by high-school graduates in their college work.

8. PROGRESSIVE MODIFICATION OF ECONOMIC CONDITIONS.

Vocational guidance must not only teach the child to adjust himself to his environment, but must also equip him to change that environment. The kind of guidance that merely helps individuals to meet successfully the requirements imposed by employers might make for a more heartless competitive system than exists at the present time. Vocational guidance should lead to the cooperative solution of community problems of economic and social life on the basis of mutual welfare.

Employers are finding that recognition of social welfare in the conduct of their enterprises is not only good citizenship but is good business. Faith in the effectiveness of plans that promote community helpfulness must be instilled into the pupils, who will be the adult citizens of the next generation. Twenty years from now, undoubtedly, the spirit of cooperation will permeate vocational life more than it does to-day, and because of that fact school children must acquire the spirit of cooperation and be trained in cooperation through the social organizations of classroom and school community. The significance of cooperation should be taught in all the social studies and in the course in occupations.

SECTION VI.—SOME IMPORTANT RELATED TOPICS.

1. PSYCHOLOGICAL TESTS AND VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE.

Recently much has been said and written regarding the value of psychological tests for the discovery of vocational aptitudes and vocational disabilities. Considerable experimental work has been done in this field in the past six or seven years, and there are several types of occupations for which tests have been developed. Wide differences of opinion exist, however, as to the value of these tests for purposes of vocational guidance. Their value as contributions in the field of experimental psychology should not be confused with their value as effective means of selecting an occupation for an individual or an individual for an occupation. As the work is in the early stage of experimentation, judgment on this point must be suspended until results are more conclusive. It is important, nevertheless, to set forth the prominent facts regarding these tests for the readers of this report.

The layman should be guided in his attempt to evaluate the results of vocational psychology by the writings of recognized psychologists rather than by popular writers or by those who advertise perfected systems of vocational analysis. Frequently the layman is sanguine of early results in the field of vocational selection, while the psychologist is frankly critical of the assumption often made that people can be selected for specific positions or positions selected for individuals with anything like scientific accuracy.

The psychologists, however, are quite clear regarding their aims, methods, and partial accomplishments. They are confident that progress is being made, though they do not predict certainty in results for the immediate future. They are seeking for correlations between the results of these tests and the actual performance of the tested individuals later on in some particular line of work. They believe that where there is a high coefficient of correlation in a large number of trial cases, it will be reasonably safe to accept the results of the same tests when given to untried applicants, and to expect that those succeeding in the tests will succeed also in the positions in question. The most helpful type of work in the field of mental testing for vocational guidance is the administering of miscellaneous tests of a sort that promise well and the subsequent selection of the best of these tests as measured by actual results. Work of this kind requires time, but promises well for the future.

Experimental work in the field of vocational psychology falls into three rather distinct classifications, as follows:

First, there is the attempt to supply the employer with tests that will enable him to select from a large number of applicants those most likely to succeed in a given position. This procedure is coming to be known as "vocational selection." It promotes efficiency in the organization and thus benefits the employer. One group of employers is so fully convinced of the ultimate efficiency of this method of selecting employees that they have given the necessary financial support to enable one of the universities to experiment extensively in this field for a term of five years.

Less extensive experimentation has been carried on by individuals to devise tests for the selection of workers for special occupations. Tests for determining ability to profit by musical training, and tests devised for the selection of salesmen, are illustrative of this kind of investigation. In some instances such tests aim to discover special vocational aptitudes while in others they merely designate degrees of general intelligence. To some extent, therefore, these tests may coincide with the general intelligence tests mentioned below.

Second, there is the attempt to determine which of several occupations would be the best one for a given individual to follow, at least so far as his mental characteristics may serve as an indication. This involves not only an analysis of the individual's mental equipment but also an extensive study of the characteristics of successful workers in each of the important occupations, in order that the demands of the positions may be ascertained. Naturally, much less has been done in this field than in the one just examined. Theoretically it would be necessary to canvass the whole range of occupational life before the investigator would be able to say that a given individual would reach his highest degree of self realization in a particular position. The principle seems relatively simple, but its extension in practice presents many difficulties. So far as the committee is aware, no psychologist has yet presented a complete and comprehensive analysis of the mental aptitudes essential for success in any single occupation.

Third, there is the attempt to develop tests for the measurement of general intelligence. The significance of these tests for purposes of vocational guidance, rests on the assumption that an occupation can be classified with reference to the kind or amount of intelligence demanded of those who are engaged in it. It is assumed, further, that young people can be classified as to their general intelligence according as they grade high or low with reference to established mental standards or levels. Obviously if such standards can be fixed and if tests can determine the level of intelligence at which a given individual stands, this phase of psychology will have an important bearing on vocational guidance.

It is not within the province of this report to discuss the relative merits of different systems of intelligence scales, or the limits within which their results have been shown to be effective, but it may be noted that results are found to be more reliable with younger than with older children. What appears to be a proved value of general intelligence tests is the assistance that they may give in determining which children will probably leave school prematurely. Experiments in this field have been carried on in the public schools of Cincinnati for several years. As a result the school authorities are convinced that there is an important relation between retardation, elimination, and low mentality. In this connection Supt. Condon says: "Measuring scales of intelligence have already reached the point where they can be of assistance to the schools in selecting children for certain kinds of vocational training. Such a selection is the most fundamental phase of vocational guidance, since the advice is given while there is still time for special training." Reference to this method of selection is given in greater detail under the heading "Studying and Testing Pupils' Possibilities," Section V of this report.

In most cases interest in the development of general intelligence scales has centered in the "scales" rather than in the young people immediately in need of guidance, for it is realized that many years of experimentation and scientific study will be necessary for its completion. In this field the psychologists themselves attach more importance to the testing of the tests than to the testing of people.

It will be some time before actual proofs of the validity of psychological tests for vocational guidance can be established, meanwhile, young people must be guided. It is also to be noted that the psychological test "tests only what it tests" and that there are many other factors in the problem of vocational guidance all of which the counselor must consider, for his problem is one demanding immediate solution.

Furthermore psychological tests themselves reveal the fact that a fundamental characteristic of the human being is adaptibility—the ability to improve with practice. It is probable, therefore that other considerations, geographic, social, and economic, will frequently have greater weight in determining a youth's occupation, than his peculiar mental equipment, important as that factor may be. In other words, vocational guidance may well become a special study for the sociologists, or the economists, as well as the psychologists. It is precisely for this reason that the vocational counselor must not rely with too much confidence on unverified and possibly unimportant results of psychological tests.

As intimated, few tests have been given in such a way as to determine the ability of the youth to improve with instruction and training. The province of the vocational counselor, however, is to see that education and training become prominent elements in guidance. Therefore the ideal vocational counselor will be something of a psychologist, but he will also be a sociologist, an economist, and, most of all, an educator in the best modern sense of the word.

The committee believes that we should welcome continued experimentation in the field of vocational psychology, but that we should put the present emphasis upon education, training, and supervision. We are of the opinion that when false expectations are abandoned and unreasonable demands are withdrawn, psychology will be able to render worthy service in vocational guidance, and the psychologist may have a large share in making adjustments between individuals and society.

2. THE HOME AND VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE.

In the past 20 years the responsibility for advising with pupils and for starting them in their work has been shifted in large measure from the home to the school. In the future the school should do no less, but the home should do more than at present.

There is no activity of the school system that should be more closely in touch with the home nor one that should find a more cordial welcome on the part of parents than the work of the vocational guidance department. It is impossible to form an accurate judgment of a child's capacities, tendencies, and ambitions, without a knowledge of his home environment. Such an understanding can be gained only through visits which, whenever possible, should be made by some one directly connected with the school as teacher or officer. Where this is not feasible, the assistance of social workers may be utilized. In Boston, for example, it has been found effective to have social workers make visits and report in detail directly to the schools.

Furthermore the parents should be conversant with, and interested in the purposes of the various curriculums and courses offered by the school, the pupil's progress in his studies, and in his school work generally, and the fields of work open to him as a result of the preparation received. Such intelligent interest on the part of the parents may be aroused in various ways. The visits of teachers or social workers will help, but they should be supplemented by circular letters and pamphlets giving definite information about the curriculums and courses offered and the work toward which they lead. Personal conferences with individuals or with small groups of parents and more formal discussions in the meetings of parents' associations are also recommended.

REPORTS OF THE COMMISSION ON THE REORGANIZATION OF SECONDARY EDUCATION.

The following reports of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education are now available as bulletins of the United States Bureau of Education and may be purchased of the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C., at the prices indicated. Other reports are in preparation. Remittance should be made in coin or money order as stamps are not accepted:

The Teaching of Community Civics. Bulletin, 1915, No. 23. 10 cents.
Social Studies in Secondary Education. Bulletin, 1916, No. 28. 10 cents.
Reorganization of English in Secondary Schools. Bulletin, 1917, No. 2. 20 cents.
Music in Secondary Schools. Bulletin, 1917, No. 49. 5 cents.
Physical Education in Secondary Schools. Bulletin. 1917, No. 50. 5 cents.
Moral Values in Secondary Education. Bulletin, 1917, No. 51. 5 cents.
Vocational Guidance in Secondary Education. Bulletin, 1918, No. 19. — cents.

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BULLETIN OF THE BUREAU OF EDUCATION.

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1917.

No. 37. The conference on training for foreign service. Glen L. Swiggett.
No. 38. Vocational teachers for secondary schools. C. D. Jarvis.
No. 39. Teaching English to aliens. Winthrop Talbot.
No. 40. Monthly record of current educational publications, September, 1917.
No. 41. Library books for high schools. Martha Wilson.
No. 42. Monthly record of current educational publications, October, 1917.
No. 43. Educational directory, 1917–18.
No. 44. Educational conditions in Arizona.
No. 45. Summer sessions in city schools. W. S. Deffenbaugh.
No. 46. The public school system of San Francisco, Cal.
No. 47. The preparation and preservation of vegetables. Henrietta W. Calvin and Carrie A. Lyford.
No. 48. Monthly record of current educational publications, November, 1917.
No. 49. Music in secondary schools. A reoprt of the Commission on Secondary Education. Will Earhart and Osbourne McConathy.
No. 50. Physical education in secondary schools. A report of the Commission on Secondary Education.
No. 51. Moral values in secondary education. A report of the Commission on Secondary Education. Henry Neumann.
No. 52. Monthly record of current educational publications, December, 1917.
No. 53. The conifers of the northern Rockies. J. E. Kirkwood.
No. 54. Training in courtesy. Margaret S. McNaught.
No. 55. Statistics of State universities and State colleges, 1917.

1918.

No. 1. Monthly record of current educational publications, January, 1918.
No. 2. The publications of the United States Government. W. I. Swanton.
No. 3. Agricultural instruction in the high schools of six eastern States. C. H. Lane.
No. 4. Monthly record of current educational publication, February, 1918.
No. 5. Work of the Bureau of Education for the natives of Alaska, 1916–17.
No. 6. The curriculum of the woman's college. Mabel L. Robinson.
No. 7. The bureau of extension of the University of North Carolina. Louis R. Wilson and Lester A. Williams.
No. 8. Monthly record of current educational publications, March, 1918.
No. 9. Union list of mathematical periodicals. David E. Smith.
No. 10. Public school classes for crippled children. Edith R. Solenberger.
No. 11. A community center—what it is and how to organize it. Henry E. Jackson.
No. 12. Monthly record of current educational publications, April, 1918.
No. 13. The land grant of 1862, and the land-grant colleges. Benj. F. Andrews.
No. 14. Monthly record of current educational publications, May, 1918.
No. 15. Educational survey of Elyria, Ohio.
No. 16. Facilidades Ofrecidas a Los Estudiantes Extranjeros.
No. 17. History of public school education in Arizona. Stephen B. Weeks.
No. 18. Americanization as a war measure.
No. 19. Vocational guidance in secondary education. A report of the Commission on Secondary Education.
No. 20. Monthly record of current educational publications, June, 1918.
No. 21. Instruction in journalism in institutions of higher education. Jas. M. Lee.
No. 22. Monthly record of current educational publications—Index, February, 1917, to January, 1918.
No. 23. State laws relating to education enacted in 1915, 1916, and 1917. Wm. R. Hood.
No. 24. Vocational guidance and the public schools. W. Carson Ryan, jr.

Harvard
Dept. of Education

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR
BUREAU OF EDUCATION

BULLETIN, 1918, No. 20

MONTHLY RECORD OF CURRENT EDUCATIONAL PUBLICATIONS

JUNE, 1918

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NOTE.

The record comprises a general survey in bibliographic form of current educational literature, domestic and foreign, received during the monthly period preceding the date of its publication.

This office can not supply the publications listed in this bulletin, other than those expressly designated as publications of the Bureau of Education. Books, pamphlets, and periodicals here mentioned may ordinarily be obtained from their respective publishers, either directly or through a dealer, or, in the case of an association publication, from the secretary of the issuing organization. Many of them are available for consultation in various public and institutional libraries.

Publications intended for inclusion in this record should be sent to the library of the Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C.

With this issue the record suspends publication for the summer.

PROCEEDINGS OF ASSOCIATIONS.

827. **National society for the study of education.** Seventeenth yearbook. Part I.—Third report of the committee on economy of time in education. Part II.—The measurement of educational products. Bloomington, Ill., Public school publishing company, 1918. 2 v. 8°.

828. **New England association of colleges and secondary schools.** [Addresses delivered at the meeting held at Springfield, Mass., December 7–8, 1917] Education, 38: 621–732, May 1918.

Contains: 1. R. J. Aley: The war and secondary schools, p. 628–34. 2. J. M. Thomas: The war and the men's colleges, p. 635–43. 3. Lewis Perry: The school and college high brow, p. 644–49. 4. Mary E. Woolley: Educational problems in the colleges for women, p. 650–54. 5. C. W. Eliot: Abstract of address on Educational changes needed for the war and the subsequent peace, p. 655–58. 6. C. W. Eliot: The modern school, p. 659–67. 7. Paul Shorey: "The modern school," p. 668–84. 8. A. E. Stearns: Education and the new order, p. 685–93. 9. O. W. Caldwell: An experimental school, p. 694–705. 10. G. H. Browne: The modern school and present day distractions, p. 710–21. 11. C. H. Forbes: Assumptions of the "Modern school," p. 725–29.

829. **North Carolina teachers' assembly.** Proceedings and addresses of the thirty-fourth annual session. . . Charlotte, November 28–30, 1917. Raleigh, N. C., Commercial printing company, 1918. 259 p. 8°. (E. E. Sams, secretary, Raleigh, N. C.)

Contains: 1. A. T. Allen: President's address. A plea to make the educational efforts of the state an organic whole, p. 63–70. 2. E. K. Graham: Patriotism and the schools, p. 71–77. 3. I. C. Griffin: The need of an educational survey in North Carolina, p. 82–86. 4. Etta R. Spier: A plea for the reorganization of primary curriculum, p. 102–5. 5. E. H. Moser: The teacher and the results in the grammar school, p. 109–11. 6. N. W. Walker: The place of the high school in the county system, p. 117–19. 7. N. W. Walker: A constructive program of high school development, p. 119–23. 8. J. R. Nixon: School fairs, p. 123–26. 9. W. D. Allen: General needs of the music teacher, p. 129–33. 10. R. H. Bachman: Needed school adjustments to meet conditions thrust on us by the world war, p. 165–70. 11. Hoy Taylor: High school music credits, p. 173–77. 12. F. M. Harper: The legal status of the city school superintendent, p. 178–80. 13. G. A. Harrer: Some phases of Latin in the high school, p. 181–85. 14. A. A. Taylor: Examination and certification of city high school teachers, p. 190–95. 15. W. A. Harper: The standard college, p. 199–203. 16. Roy Thomas: What the farm-life school has done to develop community spirit, p. 213–15. 17. Gertrude Sliter: How the high-school economics teacher can forward the government's plan for conservation, p. 227–29.

830. **North central association of colleges and secondary schools.** Proceedings of the twenty-second annual meeting . . . held at St. Louis, Mo., March 23–24, 1917. . . Pub. by the Association, 1917. 180 p. 8°. (H. E. Brown, secretary, Kenilworth, Ill.)

Contains: 1. List of accredited institutions of higher education, p. 15–28. 2. C. B. Curtis: Secondary school science, p. 36–47. 3. C. H. Johnston: Commission of unit courses and curricula. Preliminary statement, p. 49–56. 4. P. W. Cox: Recommendations of the commission on unit courses and curricula of the North central association of colleges and secondary schools regarding junior high schools, p. 56–61. 5. J. E. Stout: Part II of the report of the committee on unit courses and curricula, p. 61–66. 6. J. H. Newlon: Certain features of high school administration which should be standardized by the North central association, p. 76–86. 7. C. C. Certain: Standard library organization for accredited high schools of different sizes, p. 86–108. 8. C. O. Davis: Report of commission on secondary schools, p. 110–18. 9. Standards, statistical analyses and list of secondary schools accredited by the North central association of colleges and secondary schools, p. 118–35.

EDUCATIONAL HISTORY AND BIOGRAPHY.

831. **Browning, W. E.** The Lancasterian school system in England and the Americas. Educational foundations, 29: 465–73, April 1918.

A brief history of Joseph Lancaster and the introduction of his schools into England and the Americas. In conclusion, the author sums up the defects and the advantages of the system.

832. **Dugas, L.** Rousseau at Malebranche. Revue pédagogique, 72: 79–99, February 1918.

An attempt to show from an examination of the Émile that Rousseau was a disciple of Malebranche.

833. From college dean to war executive. I.—Frederick P. Keppel of Columbia, by Levering Tyson. II.—Dean Keppel in the War department, by Donald Wilhelm. American review of reviews, 57: 497–99, May 1918.

834. **McConaughy, James L.** Have we an educational debt to Germany? Educational review, 55: 361–76, May 1918.

A critical study of the German school system. Quotes from Samuel Laing and Horace Mann to show the undemocratic spirit of Prussian education. Says that one result of the war will be a modification of our German-borrowed scheme of state educational control into some form of national direction.

835. Schoolmasters in books. Educational news (Edinburgh) 43: 198–99, April 5, 1918.

An interesting study of teachers in the works of Sir Walter Scott, Charles Dickens, W. M. Thackeray, George Eliot, the Bronte sisters, Charles Lamb, etc.

836. Superintendent W. L. Ettinger. School 29: 349, May 9, 1918.

Life of the new head of the New York city public school system—exponent of the new education; his policy.

837. **Swift, Fletcher H.** Hebrew education in school and society. Open court, 32: 228–53, 312–16, April, May 1918.

Historical study of Hebrew education during the period of reaction to foreign influences. Second paper deals with woman and the education of girls.

CURRENT EDUCATIONAL CONDITIONS.

United States.

838. **Brode, H. L.** The place of propaganda in education. Inter-mountain educator, 13: 15–17, April 1918.

Some kinds of educational propaganda common to-day and the good and bad phases of a propaganda.

839. **Connecticut. Board of education.** Educational inquiry, Kent 1916–1917. Hartford, Conn., State board of education [1917] 33 p. 1 fold. pl. (map) 8°. (Bulletin 56)

Written by Mr. E. Ward Ireland, an agent of the State board of education.

840. ———. Educational inquiry, New Hartford 1916. Hartford, Conn., State board of education [1917?] 33 p. 1 fold. pl. (map) 8°. (Bulletin 30)

Written by Mr. E. Ward Ireland, an agent of the State board of education.

841. **Edmunds, S. H.** School surveys. Columbia, S. C., University of South Carolina, 1918. 29 p. 8°. (Bulletin of the University of South Carolina, no. 66, March 1918)

Paper read before the Department of superintendence, December 29, 1917.

842. Education—an investment or an expense. Being a statement of certain facts of interest to the teachers of Kansas, and the editor's comments thereon. Kansas teacher, 7: 21, 36–38, May 1918.

Sets forth the effort made by the teachers of Kansas to obtain new textbooks in geography and to do away with the books in use at present which are already twenty years old and now thoroughly out of date.

843. **Huron, S. D. Board of education.** Report of the superintendent of schools, 1916–1917. [Huron, S. D., Bowen pub. co., 1917] 86 p. 8°.

F. L. Whitney, superintendent.
This report is in part a survey of school conditions in the district.

844. **Levine, Albert J.** The Ettinger plan of education of New York. Journal of education, 87: 507–9, May 9, 1918.

845. **Musselman, H. T.** School visions and school work in the city of Port Arthur. Texas school journal, 35: 9–11, April 1918.

The Port Arthur, Texas, elementary school. A description of the school plan and its work.

Foreign Countries.

846. **Adams, John.** English lay critics of education. Educational review, 55: 377–87, May 1918.

Criticism of elementary education in England.

847. Capitalism and education. Athenæum (London), no. 4627: 131–34, March 1918.

Views of English captains of industry on the educational question. Writer says that we must get rid of the commercial view that education is intended for the cultivation of the intellects of the few and not for the uplifting of the masses.

848. **Hicks, Charles R.** Glimpses of Nippon at school. Journal of race development, 8: 328–45, January 1918.

Describes the educational system of Japan.

849. **Kandel, I. L.** England and educational reconstruction. New republic, 15: 13–16, May 4, 1918.

Discusses the provisions of the education bill, now being considered in the British parliament. Says that the measure will undoubtedly pass, for it has the support of every creed and all political parties. Commends that feature of the bill which permits local authorities to spend money on research in education.

EDUCATION AND THE WAR.

850. **Allen, William Harvey.** War fact tests for graduation and promotion. Yonkers-on-Hudson, N. Y., World book company, 1918. 80 p. front., illus. 12°.

851. **Finley, John H.** Report of a visit to schools of France in war time . . . with messages to the universities, colleges and schools of America from those of France. [Albany] The University of the state of New York, 1917. 136 p. front., plates. 4°.

852. **Futrall, John C.** Education and the war. Arkansas teacher, 6: 8–9, May 1918.

Education after the war.

853. **Grossmann, Maximilian P. E.** Some of the regrettable effects of the war on children of school age. Educational foundations, 29: 479–82, April 1918.

854. **Levine, Albert J.** Ideals and methods of education in the crucible of war. Educational foundations, 29: 517–26, May 1918.

855. **Munroe, James Phinney.** What the war means to education. [New York, D. C. McMurtrie] 1918. 12 p. 12°.

Convocation address, George Washington university, February 22, 1918.

856. **Thwing, Charles Franklin.** Prospects of liberal education after the war. Hibbert journal, 16: 402–14, April 1918.

Says that the closer political union of Great Britain, France, and the United States is sure to have a fundamental influence on American higher education. After the war, liberal education, in order to maintain itself, and even to increase its force, should give special heed to certain great, constant factors and elements of its learning, among which are history, literature, philosophy, and religion.

857. **Wegner, Henry C.** Education and war. American education, 21: 456–58, May 1918.

Education that caused the war, education that will help win this war, and education that must end all war.

858. **Wilson, Woodrow.** War addresses of Woodrow Wilson; with an introduction and notes by Arthur Roy Leonard. Boston, New York [etc.] Ginn and company [1918] xxxii, 129 p. front. 16°.

EDUCATIONAL THEORY AND PRACTICE.

859. **Aubin, A.** Savoir positif et procédés mécaniques d'enseignement. 2ᵉ article. Revue pédagogique, 72: 100–29, February 1918.

Continued from Revue pédagogique, September 1917.

860. **Blumberg, Philip S.** Once more Flexner's "A modern school." School and society, 7: 545–51, May 11, 1918.

Answers the criticisms brought forth by Isaac Thomas against Flexner's "A modern school," which appeared in School and society for November 24, 1917.

861. **Bryant, D. C.** The good recitation. Ohio educational monthly, 67: 182–86, May 1918.

A discussion of the factors making for a good recitation such as the lesson assignment, preparation by the teacher, preparation by the pupil, etc.

862. **Great Britain. Board of education.** Suggestions for the consideration of teachers and others concerned in the work of public elementary schools. London, H. M. Stationery office, 1918. 159 p. 8°.

Reprinted with revision of the introductory chapters and of the parts relating to nature study.

863. **Howard, Frank E.** The individual versus the group in education. Educational review, 55: 388–97, May 1918.

Says that a present defect in our educational agencies is that they have done too little "to develop social virtue. We must seek to change the joy of individual work into the joy of cooperative work and to inoculate our people with the spirit of our institutions."

EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY; CHILD STUDY.

864. **Aguayo, A. M.** El laboratorio de paidologia de la universidad. Habana, "El Siglo XX" de Aurelio Miranda, 1918. 19 p. 8°.

865. **Hug-Hellmuth, H. von.** A study of the mental life of the child. Psychoanalytic review, 5: 193–227, April 1918.

Translated from the German by J. J. Putnam and Mabel Stevens. Second article of series. Deals with play activities, memory, imagination, development of the understanding, and bodily functions.

866. **Jones, W. Franklin.** A study of handedness. Vermillion, S. D., Pub. by the University, 1918. 80 p. illus. 8°. (Series 17, no. 14, March 1918.)

867. **Toops, Herbert A.** *and* **Pintner, Rudolf.** Mentality in its relation to elimination from school. School and society, 7: 507–10, 534–39, April 29, May 4, 1918.

EDUCATIONAL TESTS AND MEASUREMENTS.

868. **Dashiell, J. F.** Children's sense of harmonies in colors and tones. Journal of experimental psychology, 2: 466–75, December 1917.

Experiments on kindergarten children of Minneapolis, Minn. Afterwards the same observations were made on 126 sophomores at the University of Minnesota.

869. **Dearborn, Walter F.** *and* **Brewer John M.** Methods and results of a class experiment in learning. Journal of educational psychology, 9: 63–82, February 1918.

"This is an experiment with a code substitution test. Five other tests were given at the beginning and at the end of the practice period to test the transfer effect. There was a decided improvement in the practice series, but the facilitation and interference in the other tests practically balance each other, leaving little evidence of transfer."

870. **Minnick, J. H.** Certain abilities fundamental to the study of geometry. Journal of educational psychology, 9: 83–90, February 1918.

"The abilities in question were to draw a figure for a theorem; to state the hypothesis and conclusion of the theorem; to recall additional facts about the figure when one or more facts are given; and to select from the available facts those necessary for a proof. Each of these was tested on one thousand pupils who had recently finished the first two books of geometry."

871. **Race, Henrietta V.** A study of a class of children of superior intelligence. Journal of educational psychology, 9: 91–98, February 1918.

"Twenty-one fourth grade children were selected on the basis of high intelligence quotients as determined by the Stanford revision of the Binet tests and placed in a special advancement class. Two years' work was easily done in one. The scores of a number of other tests are given."

872. **Rogers, Agnes Low.** Experimental tests of mathematical ability and their prognostic value. New York city, Teachers college, Columbia university, 1918. 118 p. tables. diagrs. 8°. (Teachers college, Columbia university. Contributions to education, no. 89.)

873. **Terman, Lewis M.** Errors in scoring Binet tests. Psychological clinic, 12: 33–39, April 15, 1918.

874. **Wallin, J. E. Wallace.** The peg formboards. Psychological clinic, 12: 40–53, April 15, 1918.

Points out the serviceability of the peg formboards as a simple motor or psychomotor test.

SPECIAL METHODS OF INSTRUCTION.

875. **Averill, Lawrence A.** The motion picture and child development. Educational review, 55: 398–409, May 1918.

A plea for proper motion pictures. Effect on children. Advocates providing special juvenile performances at stated times and places, with films carefully selected in which all sex and crime scenes are eliminated.

876. **Branom, Mendel E.** The value of the project-problem method in elementary education. Elementary school journal, 18: 618–22, April 1918.

Discusses plan as worked out in the St. Louis schools.

877. **Fox, Florence C.** Socialized recitations. Moderator-topics, 38: 551–52, May 9, 1918.

SPECIAL SUBJECTS OF CURRICULUM.

878. **Association of history teachers of the middle states and Maryland.** Proceedings of the meetings held in 1917 at Philadelphia, Poughkeepsie and Philadelphia. Number 15. 61 p. 8°. (L. R. Schuyler, secretary-treasurer, College of the City of New York, New York, N. Y.)

Contains: 1. How far should the teaching of history and civics be used as a means of encouraging patriotism? [by] H. V. Ames, p. 6–16; [by] W. S. Myers, p. 17–18; [by] Louise H. Haeseler, p. 18–20. 2. A. S. Beatman: Should the curriculum in history for vocational students differ from that for academic students? If so, how? p. 24–31. 3. J. M. Gambrill: Should vocational interests determine the history curriculum? p. 31–36. 4. What can the teacher of history do now? [by] D. C. Knowlton, p. 41–46; [by] H. W. Hoagland, p. 46–48; [by] W. B. Guthrie, p. 48–50; [by] Lucy E. Textor, p. 51.

879. **Branom, Mendel E.** The project-problem method in the teaching of geography. Journal of geography, 16: 333–38, May 1918.

880. **Brereton, Cloudesley.** A defence of the modern humanities. Nineteenth century, 83: 810–23, April 1918.

A reply to an article by Cyril Robinson in the Nineteenth century, for June, 1917, giving a critical defence of the present system of education in English public schools—the maintenance of an extreme type of classical instruction for all boys from 10 to 16–17. Criticises the point of view of Mr Robinson, and says that early specialization in classics will have to be abandoned.

881. **Caldwell, Otis W.** *and others.* The course in natural science in the University elementary school. Elementary school journal, 18: 571–87, April 1918.

Third article of series. Deals with grades 6 and 7, and gives type-lessons.

882. **Committee to enquire into the position of modern languages in the educational system of Great Britain.** Report of the committee appointed by the prime minister to enquire into the position of modern languages in the educational system of Great Britain. Presented to Parliament by command of His Majesty. London, H. M. Stationery office, 1918. viii, 82 p. f°. (Cd. 9036)

An important document containing an able and broad-minded examination of its subject.

883. **Greenlaw, Edwin.** Required work in literature for undergraduates. English journal, 7: 285–94, May 1918.

Lays emphasis on the spiritual and moral values to be obtained from reading and studying the best poets.

A paper read before the Southern association of colleges and secondary schools, November 1917.

884. **Harris, George W.** War on the German language. Journal of education, 87: 457–58, April 25, 1918.

Suggests as a motto for the guidance of all educators—"In higher institutions, the languages of all democratic peoples, as electives; and in all our schools, English, English, English everywhere required."

885. **Hendrick, Ellwood.** Science in the humanities. Atlantic monthly, 121: 656–64, May 1918.

Writer says that the greatest thing to teach is the science of living, the understanding of human reactions, the ways of people and things, and the cognizance of them.

886. **Herdman, W. A.** Some thoughts on science teaching in schools. School world (London), 20: 117–22, April 1918.

Value of scientific teaching in order to determine vocational proclivities of pupils and to lead to habits of correct observation, etc.

887. **Hollingworth, Leta S.** *and* **Winford, C. Amelia.** The psychology of special disability in spelling. New York city, Teachers college, Columbia university, 1918. 105 p. tables, diagrs. 8°. (Teachers college, Columbia university. Contributions to education, no. 88.)

888. An independent college of political science. Nation, 106: 559–60, May 11, 1918.

Writer proposes "to secure from the various universities of the country a corps of selected specialists in the several branches of social science, relieve them from administrative responsibilities, grant them self-government, and set them free to investigate, publish, and teach."

889. **Jones, Franklin T.** Practice exercises in physics. School review, 26: 341–48, May 1918.

Tests in physics to ascertain the student's knowledge of the numerical problem in heat.

890. **Mackay, M. Boyd.** The teaching of history in schools. Journal of education (London) 50: 217–19, April 1918.

As regards teaching of history in English schools the writer says that the best point of contact from which to start with small children of secondary school age is some period of early English history.

891. **Magee, Helene B.** Inspiration in freshman composition. English journal, 7: 313–21, May 1918.

Writer says: "Once convince a freshman class of the fact that the organizing of material for themes and the subsequent expression of that material in sentences and paragraphs which are orderly and clear are an essential part in any young person's training for such a working out of his or her own salvation, and you will have a class which is 'interested.'"

892. **Moore, Frank G.** Haste and waste in translating Latin. Educational review, 55: 417–26, May 1918.

893. **Moritz, Robert E.** Does the study of mathematics train the mind specifically or universally? a reply. School and society, 7: 485–92, April 27, 1918.

A reply to an article by Ernest C. Moore, which appeared in School and society for October 27, 1917.

894. **Myers, G. W.** Progressive teaching of mathematics—what is it? School science and mathematics, 18: 387–96, May 1918.

A talk to the Chicago City mathematical club, January 11, 1918.

895. **Painter, George S.** Mathematics as a study. American education, 21: 444–55, May 1918.

Discusses mathematics as a science, mathematics in relation to other sciences, and mathematics as a mental discipline.

896. Science in secondary schools. School world (London) 20: 28–32, April 1918.

Method in science teaching. From the report of a committee appointed by the British association to consider and report upon the method and substance of science teaching in secondary schools, with particular reference to the essential place of science in general education.

897. **Scott, Jonathan F.** History teaching and international friendship. Nation (Educational supplement) 106: 537–39, May 4, 1918.

Says that school histories, especially, have tended to perpetuate antagonisms between Canada and the United States, growing out of the American revolution and the War of 1812. "Why perpetuate these antagonisms?" says the writer.

898. **Sperlin, O. B.** What literature shall we teach? English journal, 7: 303–12, May 1918.

Discusses the recommendations of the Committee on the reorganization of English in secondary schools, published by the U. S. Bureau of education. Emphasizes idealization as the important factor in the teaching of literature, and finds the best literature to this end in the after-the-eighteenth century period.

899. **Sturtevant, E. H.** An obvious means of increasing the study of the classics. Classical weekly, 11: 202–4, May 6, 1918.

Says that we are more likely to hold a man for classical study if we put him at Greek first than if we started him with Latin. Thinks that Greek offers the most attractive material.

900. **Taylor, David C.** The melodic method in school music; a manual for teachers and supervisors. New York, The Macmillan company, 1918. 171 p. 12°.

901. **Torrey, Harry B.** Value and service of zoological science: value to the individual. Science, n. s. 47: 471–76, May 17, 1918.

Says that zoology presents peculiar advantages to the elementary student in school or college, for the use of the constructive imagination.

KINDERGARTEN AND PRIMARY SCHOOL.

902. **Watkins, Catharine R.** The responsibility of the kindergarten to its own ideals. Kindergarten and first grade. 3: 178–81, May 1918.

Address given at the International kindergarten union session, Department of superintendence, at Atlantic City, N. J.

RURAL EDUCATION.

903. **Arp, Julius Bernhard.** Rural education and the consolidated school. Yonkers-on-Hudson, N. Y., World book company, 1918. 212 p. illus. 12°. (School efficiency monographs.)

904. **Jinks, John H.** Manual training in rural schools. Southern workman, 47: 233–40, May 1918.

Discusses book repairing. Illustrated.

SECONDARY EDUCATION.

905. **Davis, C. O.** Junior high schools in the North central association [of colleges and secondary schools] territory, 1917–18. School review. 26: 324–36, May 1918.

Study based on a questionnaire sent to each north central secondary school which was on the accredited list last year. "Almost precisely ¼ (25.78 per cent) of the accredited schools of the Association have taken steps intended to develop a six-year high school system." Thinks that the junior high school is positively advantageous.

906. **Mangun, Vernon L.** Some junior high school facts drawn from two years of the six-six plan at Macomb, Illinois. Elementary school journal, 18: 598–617, April 1918.

Writer reaches the following conclusion: "Assuming the purpose of the public school to be that of serving all the children more completely during a school career of maximal length by meeting their needs more accurately, the reorganization described has proved by two years' trial to be a successful means toward the fuller realization of that purpose."

907. **Wake, William S.** The failing pupil in the high school. School review, 26: 349–64, May 1918.

Discusses causes for failing and dropping out. Says that the keeping of students' history cards is most indispensable.

TEACHERS: TRAINING AND PROFESSIONAL STATUS.

908. **Bacon, Gertrude M.** The organization and administration of the practice school. Journal of the New York state teachers' association, 5: 85–88, April 1918.

909. **Boas, Franz.** Scientific progress and university government. Nation (Educational supplement) 106: 539–40, May 4, 1918.

Says that the interests of science and education demand that "the officers of scientific institutions be so placed that no consideration of dependence upon governing bodies should restrict their freedom of thought and expression."

910. **Denny, J. V.** Preparation of college teachers of English. English journal, 7: 322–36, May 1918.

Advocates making the master's degree in English a teacher's degree, indicating that the holder had made special preparation for teaching English and naming both his scholastic and his professional preparation.

911. **Institute for public service, New York city.** Teacher benefits from school surveys. New York city, Institute for public service [1918?] 24 p. 8° (Educational review of reviews, no. 48.)

912. **Lull, H. G.** Curricular problems of degree granting normal schools or teachers' colleges. p. 71–87. 8°.

Reprint from Educational administration and supervision, vol. 4, no. 2, February 1918.

Read before the Western association of college teachers of education, Omaha, December 29, 1917.

This paper embodies the essential points in a report made by a committee of the Kansas state normal school to the Carnegie foundation for the advancement of teaching.

913. **Morrison, Henry C.** The shortage of teachers. Hartford, Conn., State board of education, 1918. 8 p. 8°. (Connecticut. State board of education. Bulletin 47, Series 1917–18.)

An address before the Connecticut superintendents' association, February 15, 1918.
Also in part in Journal of education, 87: 451–52, April 25, 1918.
Discusses the salary question and the shortage of teachers.

914. **New Haven teachers' league.** Report of research committee, New Haven teachers' league. New Haven teachers' journal, 11: 4–15, April 1918.

Results of a study undertaken by the research committee of the New Haven teachers' league to find out the situation in the schools concerning experience of teachers, children per teacher, subnormal children, physical condition, etc.

915. **Pitman, J. Asbury** *and* **Sweitzer, Channing E.** The standardization of the salaries, duties, qualifications and titles of the instructors in the several normal schools of Massachusetts—I–IV. Journal of education, 87: 482–83, 522–24, 544–45, 549, 606–7, May 2, 9, 16, 30, 1918.

916. **Prior, D. O.** The place of philology in the training of the school teacher. Modern language teaching (London) 14: 45–54, March 1918.

Address delivered at the annual general meeting of the Modern language association, London, January 12, 1918.
Shows the importance of philology to the teacher; its definite moral value. It is a formal science requiring absolute precision.

917. Recommendations as to teachers' salaries. West Virginia school journal and educator, 47: 400–401, May 1918.

Recommendations of a committee appointed November 17, 1917, by the Monongahela Valley teachers' round table to investigate the subject of teachers' salaries and shortage of teachers in West Virginia.

918. State superintendents write on teachers' salaries. Normal instructor and primary plans, 27: 58, 60, June 1918.

Letters from a number of state superintendents of education in regard to the matter of teacher supply and teachers' salaries.

919. **Stoutemyer, J. H.** The teaching of the history of education in normal schools. School and society, 7: 571–80, May 18, 1918.

Bibliography: p. 580.
A. The status of the teaching of history of education.—B. Comments and criticisms of the teaching of history of education.—C. A critique of the content of text-books.

920. **Wilson, Thomas J.** On teachers' wages. Illinois teacher, 6: 91–92, April 1918.

A part of an article which appeared in the latest number of the Alumni quarterly of the Illinois state normal university.
Advocates the teachers' union for adjusting the salary question.

HIGHER EDUCATION.

921. **Association of American colleges.** Addresses at fourth annual meeting. Chicago, Ill., Association of American colleges, 1918. 86 p. 8°. (Association of American colleges bulletin, vol. 4, no. 3, April 1918.) (Raymond M. Hughes, secretary-treasurer, Oxford, Ohio)

Contains: 1. E. C. Sanford: The three year course, p. 3–13; Discussion, p. 13–17. 2. J. C. Dinsmore: Co-operative purchasing for colleges, p. 17–20; Discussion, p. 20–22. 3. Alexander Meiklejohn: The last two years of the college course, p. 22–32. 4. C. F. Thwing: Prospects of liberal education in the United States after the war, p. 32–36. 5. Charles Cestre: The cultural advantages of French universities for American students, p. 36–58. 6. L. P. Powell: Our allies' expectations, p. 58–66. 7. J. H. MacCracken: Pooling of college interests as a war measure, p. 66–79; Discussion, p. 79–86.

922. **Hurt, Huber William.** Comparative statistics of registration of thirty universities for 1916 and 1917. School and society, 7: 561–69, May 11, 1918.

Gives a number of tables showing the effect of the war on college enrollments, and suggests that the federal government might properly conduct an enlisting campaign in our secondary schools to secure graduates to actually enlist for college and university to prepare to take the place of the thousands who have sprung to the defense of the colors.

923. **Schaffer, Aaron.** The Jewish student at the American universities. Johns Hopkins alumni magazine, 6: 241–49, March 1918.

SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION.

924. **Pennsylvania state educational association.** [Proceedings of the Department of school directors and the Association of school board secretaries.] Harrisburg, Pa., February 6–8, 1918. Pennsylvania school journal, 6: 429–85, April 1918.

Department of School Directors.

Contains: 1. J. B. Richey: The new education, p. 431–33. 2. C. B. Connelly: Vocationalized schools, p. 433–35; Discussion, p. 435–38. 3. S. R. McClure: A director's look around, p. 438–44. 4. C. A. Herrick: Importance of academic training, p. 446–49; Discussion, p. 449–52. 5. T. B. Shankle: New Kensington vocational school, p. 452–54. 6. C. N. Kendall: Some factors that make good school officials, p. 454–58. 7. Samuel Hamilton: The world war and the school, p. 458–66.

Association of School Board Secretaries.

8. J. G. Sansom: Standardization of school supplies, p. 473–74. 9. R. E. Richardson: Election and supervision of janitors, p. 475–76. 10. Mrs. E. S. H McCauley: Secretary's relation to educational system, p. 479–81. 11. R. M. Bolenius: Preparation and recording of minutes, p. 481–84.

Paper no. 9 also in American school board journal, 56: 28, 75, May 1918.

925. **Wagner, Charles A.** Undetermined values in supervision of instruction. American school board journal, 56: 29–30, May 1918.

Some of the questions discussed are: Shall supervision be intensive or extensive? What frequency of visits produces maximal benefits? Shall the visits be planned or chance visits? How shall a supervisory visit be made effective? etc.

926. **When teachers judge the school board.** [By] a superintendent's wife. American school board journal, 56: 21–22, May 1918.

Points out many little ways in which the trustee can be helpful to the teacher.

927. **Whitney, F. L.** Exchange of pupil unit costs among small school systems. American school board journal, 56: 23–24, May 1918.

The value to small school systems of exchanging information concerning the cost of instruction, etc.

SCHOOL MANAGEMENT.

928. **Bezard, J.** De la dictée primaire à la version latine; réflexions d'un professeur de première sur la correction des devoirs. Revue universitaire, 27: 165–83, March 1918.

Deals with methods of marking and correction of written exercises.

929. **McClelland, W. H.** How may the teaching principal successfully supervise his school? Journal of the New York state teachers' association, 5: 105–8, April 1918.

The qualifications of a good supervising principal, the use of tests, etc.

930. **Wiley, Mary C.** The English examination. English journal, 7: 327–30, May 1918.

Instead of the old-time memory tests, the Winston-Salem (N. C.) high school has substituted what the pupils themselves call "thought examinations," in which books are used and the pupils are allowed to consider each question with the text open before them.

931. **Zerble, J. L.** Personal judgments as a factor in grading. School science and mathematics, 18: 405–17, May 1918.

Bibliography on school grading, p. 414–17.
Shows the deviation of teachers in marking the same papers.

SCHOOL ARCHITECTURE.

932. **Cooper, Frank I.** Standardization of schoolhouse planning and construction. American school, 4: 109–11, April 1918. illus.

Read before the Department of school administration, National education association, Atlantic City, N. J., February 1918.

933. **New York (State) University. Division of school buildings and grounds.** School buildings and grounds. . . [Albany, 1917] 440 p. front., plates (1 col., 1 fold.), plans. 4°. (v. 3 of the eleventh annual report of the State department of education)

934. Schoolhouse construction during the war. American school board journal, 56: 46–50, May 1918.

Some pertinent opinions of prominent school officials and architects on the article by J. C. Llewellyn, in the March issue of the Journal.

SCHOOL HYGIENE AND SANITATION.

935. **American school hygiene association.** Proceedings of the tenth congress. . . . Vol. VII. Albany, June 7–9, 1917. 296 p. 8°. (William A. Howe, secretary, Albany, N. Y.)

Contains: 1. Mildred B. Curtiss: Health problems among rural school children, p. 23–28. 2. Katherine Olmsted: Effective methods of teaching hygiene in schools, p. 29–39. 3. Edith M. Walker: The place of health education in the school curriculum, p. 39–46. 4. Grace L. Meigs: Health of the child before school age, p. 47–50. 5. Defects of hearing and speech, p. 51–85. 6. Winifred Hathaway: University extension teaching in its relation to the conservation of health, p. 85–92. 7. M. A. Campbell: The public school pupil with partial sight, p. 92–97. 8. E. E. Allen: Present-day factors in the schools for the blind as emphasized at Perkins institution, p. 97–103. 9. C. P. McCord: Preventive treatment for Albany public school children, p. 104–11. 10. R. P. Kelley: Nutrition of the school child, p. 111–13. 11. W. R. P. Emerson: Malnutrition among school children, p. 115–17. 12. M. L. Ogan: How can better results be obtained in securing correction of defects found among school children of first-class cities? p. 142–49. 13. Florence A. Sherman: Medical inspection of schools in Bridgeport, Conn., p. 159–64. 14. F. E. Fronczak: Buffalo's campaign for open-air schoolrooms, p. 164–68. 15. W. R. Woodbury: The Petersham plan, p. 168–76. 16. W. A. Howe: The system of school medical inspection in New York state, p. 176–94. 17. Bessie L. Park: Physical training in the one-room school, p. 198–205. 18. G. N. Messer: A summary of the physical training work in the private schools of New York state, p. 210–17. 19. E. M. Tuttle: A point of view on the New York state physical training program in rural districts, p. 222–31. 20. H. J. Norton: The organization of the department of physical education of the Rochester public schools, p. 231–44. 21. H. D. Chadwick: Tuberculosis in school children, p. 244–52. 22. E. S. Elwood: Fortifying the child against mental disorders, p. 269–76. 23. E. R. Williams: Eyestrain in school children, p. 283–90. 24. W. M. Carhart: Retardation in school from refractive errors, p. 290–96.

936. **Alden, Percy.** A ministry of health. Contemporary review, 113: 380–88, April 1918.

A plea for governmental supervision of health in England, in the form of a new department of health. Cites work of schools as regards medical supervision, etc.

937. **Holley, Helen.** Health of school children. Texas school journal, 35: 12–14, May 1918.

How to promote physical efficiency in our schools, by means preventive and remedial.

938. **MacDonald, Neil S.** Open-air schools. Toronto, McClelland, Goodchild & Stewart, 1918. 127 p. 12°.

Bibliography: p. 123–27.
Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of doctor of pedagogy in Queen's university, Kingston, Ontario.
CONTENTS.—I. The open-air school idea and its development.—II. Open-air schools in Germany.—III. Open-air schools in Great Britain and Ireland.—IV. Open-air schools in the United States.—V. Open-air schools in Canada and other countries.—VI. The physiological and psychological bases of the movement.—VII. Organization of a typical open-air school.—VIII. Food and sleep.—IX. The curriculum.—X. The curriculum.—XI. Personal observations and summary.

PHYSICAL TRAINING.

939. **Becht, J. George.** Physical education in the state of Pennsylvania. Mind and body, 25: 113–19, May 1918.

A preliminary report made by the executive secretary of the State board of education, Harrisburg, Pa.

940. **Hilderbrant, Edith L.** Military training in high schools. Educational review, 55: 410–16, May 1918.

Argues against the introduction of military training in high schools.

941. **Kleeberger, F. L.** Athletics and the war game. School and society, 7: 541–45, May 11, 1918.

Advocates government legislation imposing a proper and definitely specified physical training for all boys and girls between the ages of six and twenty-two, followed up at certain intervals by a few weeks of technical military training under camp conditions for the boys.

942. **MacDonald, Pirie.** Scouting and recreational leadership. Journal of education, 87: 425–27, April 18, 1918.

The primary principles and underlying ideas of scout requirements and tests.

943. **Stecher, William A.** Modern tendencies regarding physical education. American physical education review, 23: [illegible], April 1918.

Read at the Pennsylvania teachers association, Johnstown, Pa., December 28, 1917.

SOCIAL ASPECTS OF EDUCATION.

944. **Avery, Lewis B.** The wider use of the school plant. School and society, 7: [illegible], April 20, 1918.

945. **Byington, Margaret F.** The normal family. Annals of the American academy of political and social science, 77: 13–27, May 1918.

Discusses among other things the educational value of the home.

946. **Sugg, W. H.** An experience with community meetings. Kentucky high school quarterly, 4: [illegible], April 1918.

The principal of Ballard county high school located at La Center, Ky., gives the results of a year's experience and shows what can be done in a community under proper leadership to promote community consciousness and cooperation.

947. **Wilson, H. B.** The community relationships of the school a source of motives. School and home education, 37: [illegible]–5, May 1918.

"This article shows good motives for work which may be derived from activities outside of the school."

CHILD-WELFARE.

948. **Abels, Margaret Hutton.** From school to work. A study of children leaving school under 16 years of age to go to work in Waltham, Mass., an industrial community of about 30,000 inhabitants. Washington, Government printing office, 1917. 50 p. 8°. (U. S. Department of labor. Children's bureau.)

MORAL EDUCATION.

949. **Hutchins, William J.** The $5,000 prize code of morals for children. American magazine, 85: 26–27, April 1918.

A code for use in the character-training of children by teachers and parents. Only the first half is printed here. This code won the prize offered by the National institution for moral instruction in the contest closing on Washington's birthday 1917.

RELIGIOUS EDUCATION.

950. **Southern Baptist education association.** Proceedings of the sixth midwinter conference . . . held at Nashville, Tenn., January 24–26, 1918. 63 p. 8°. (Albert R. Bond, secretary, Nashville, Tenn.)

Contains: 1. W. J. McGlothlin: The German school system and the great war, p. 12–20. 2. Edgar Godbold: The religious activities of the Southern Baptist schools, p. 21–25. 3. R. W. Weaver: The obligation of Southern Baptists to improve the rural elementary school and the method which ought to be employed to secure this result, p. 32–38. 4. C. C. Pearson: The state and the denominational college, p. 45–50.

951. **Miller, Elizabeth Erwin.** The dramatization of Bible stories; an experiment in the religious education of children. Chicago, Ill., The University of Chicago press [1918] xiv, 162 p. illus. 12°.

952. **Mutch, William J.** Method in elementary Bible teaching. International review of missions, 7: 235–41, April 1918.

MANUAL AND VOCATIONAL TRAINING.

953. **Bell, Louis A.** Applied mechanics for vocational schools. Industrial-arts magazine, 7: 165–71, May 1918. illus.

954. **Clement, Clara Torrey.** A plea for closer correlation between the fine arts department and the industrial arts department in our public schools. Industrial-arts magazine, 7: 172–75, 210–13, May, June 1918.

A thesis presented to the New York state college for teachers, May 1917, in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts.

955. **U. S. Federal board for vocational education.** Emergency war training for airplane mechanics. Engine repairmen, woodworkers, riggers, and sheet-metal workers. Washington, Government printing office, 1918. 59 p. 8°. (Bulletin no. 12, April 1918)

956. **Weidlein, E. R.** The industrial fellowships of the Mellon institute. Science, n. s. 47: 447–50, May 10, 1918.

Gives a list of the fellowships in operation at the institute on March 1, 1918.

AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION.

957. **Association of American agricultural colleges and experiment stations.** Proceedings of the thirty-first annual convention . . . held at Washington, D. C., November 14–16, 1917. Burlington, Vt., Free Press printing company, 1918. 328 p. 8°. (J. L. Hills, secretary, Burlington, Vt.)

Contains: 1. K. L. Butterfield: The Morrill act institutions and the new epoch, p. 43–59. 2. W. M. Riggs: Report of the committee on college organization and policy, p. 70–79. 3. C. A. Prosser: The Smith-Hughes act and the land-grant colleges, p. 79–84. 4. L. S. Hawkins: The Smith-Hughes act. The training of vocational teachers in agriculture, p. 84–90. 5. L. H. Carris: The Smith-Hughes act. The training of vocational teachers in trades and industries, p. 91–103. 6. Josephine T. Berry: The Smith-Hughes act. The training of vocational teachers in home economics, p. 103–16. 7. Alfred Vivian: The Smith-Hughes act. The state board, p. 116–22. 8. L. S. Hawkins: Comments on address of Dean Vivian on the relation of the state board of vocational education to the Smith-Hughes bill, p. 122–25. 9. Grenville Clark: Military training in land-grant colleges, p. 161–64. 10. E. J. James: Military training in land-grant colleges, p. 164–68. 11. E. C. Perisho: The best things done by the land-grant institutions to aid the states and nation to meet the emergencies of the war, p. 175–83. 12. A. M. Soule: How the land-grant colleges may organize to serve the government in the war emergency, p. 183–90. 13. C. D. Jarvis: A study of the requirements for graduation in agriculture, p. 190–202. 14. Alexander Gray: Changes in engineering curricula to meet war conditions, p. 210–14; Discussion, p. 214–17. 15. H. S. Boardman: Modifications in engineering curricula to meet war conditions, p. 217–19. 16. C. R. Jones: Modifications in engineering curricula to meet war conditions, p. 220–25; Discussion, p. 225–29.

958. **Bogan, William J.** Agricultural training for city high school boys. Manual training magazine, 19: 297–301, May 1918. illus.

The work of a branch of the U. S. Boys working reserve in Chicago, Ill.

959. **Bouchendhomme, E.** L'éducation professionnelle agricole et ménagère. Revue pédagogique, 72: 21–50, January 1918.

Shows the need of improving the educational facilities in agriculture and household management for the rural population of France. Discusses how this improvement may be effected.

960. **Massachusetts. Commission on the investigation of agricultural education.** Report. January, 1918. Boston, Wright & Potter printing co., 1918. 61 p. 8°.

Report of the Commission to investigate agricultural education at the Massachusetts agricultural college and the development of the agricultural resources of the commonwealth, authorized by resolves of the General court in 1916 and 1917.

961. **Nolan, Aretas W.** The teaching of agriculture; with an introduction by Eugene Davenport. Boston, Houghton Mifflin company [1918] ix, 277 p. 12°.

Contains recommendations concerning the aim, the scope of work, the principles, materials, and methods to be used in teaching agriculture in elementary and secondary schools.

962. **Wilson, G. M.** Instruction for teachers of agriculture under the Smith-Hughes vocational education law. School and society, 7: 520–23, May 4, 1918.

An address delivered before the agricultural section of the National society for the promotion of industrial education, Philadelphia, February 21, 1918.

SCHOOL GARDENS.

963. **Claxton, P. P.** The United States school garden army. American review of reviews, 57: 393–94, April 1918.

Work of the Bureau of education in promoting school gardens.

HOME ECONOMICS.

964. **Alabama home economics association.** Proceedings of the fourth annual conference, February 1-2, 1918. Montevallo, Ala., Alabama girls technical institute, 1918. 24 p. 8°. (Alabama girls technical institute bulletin, vol. 11, no. 4, April 1918)

Contains: 1. R. E. Tidwell: Home economics and its relation to the teaching profession and our present system of education, p. 7–10. 2. Anna E. Richardson: Essentials in the training of teachers of vocational home economics, p. 10–20.

965. **Graham, Helen.** The home economics teacher in the rural school. Journal of home economics, 10: 157–61, April 1918.

The characteristics of a successful rural home economics teacher and her field of usefulness.

COMMERCIAL EDUCATION.

966. **Clarke, Harry.** Commercial training in college. Florida schoolroom, 24: 4–5, May 1918.

967. **Hoole, G. G.** Bookkeeping in the high school. Business educator, 23: 22–23, May 1918.

968. **Swiggett, Glen Levin.** Educational preparation for foreign service . . . [New York, National foreign trade council, 1918] 26 p. 8°.

Advance sheets.
An address delivered at the fifth National foreign trade convention, Cincinnati, Ohio, April 18, 1918.

PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION.

969. **American medical association.** Council on medical education. Report of the fourteenth annual conference, Chicago, February 4, 1918. American medical association bulletin, 13: 101–79, November 15. 1917. (N. P. Colwell, secretary, 535 North Dearborn Street, Chicago, Ill.)

Contains: 1. N. P. Colwell: Recent improvements and further needs in medical education, p. 107–18. 2. G. G. Chambers: Problems in the administration of entrance requirements to medical schools, p. 118–23; Discussion, p. 124–30. 3. H. D. Arnold: Some problems in medical education resulting from the war, p. 136–43; Discussion, p. 143–51. 4. Final report on education preliminary to the study of medicine, p. 175–79.

970. **National association of dental faculties.** Proceedings . . . thirty-fourth annual meeting, held at New York City, N. Y., October 19–20. 1917. 94 p. 8°. (C. C. Allen, secretary, Kansas City, Mo.)

971. **Aikens, Charlotte A.** The system of training and the nurse. Trained nurse, 60: 261–64, May 1918.

Second article of series. Outlines a course on psychology and psychotherapy for the senior nurses.

972. **Brown, Philip K.** Nurses and the war. Journal of the American medical association, 70: 1438–41, May 18, 1918.

Discusses the lack of reciprocity and coordination among training schools; educational opportunities in California hospitals, etc. Advocates cutting of the training course in hospitals down to four terms of three months each.

973. **Mills, Herbert E.** College women and nursing. Survey, 40: 94–95, April 27, 1918.

Describes the training camp for nurses at Vassar college.

974. **Simpson, Thomas H.** The college woman as nurse. American review of reviews, 57: 527–28, May 1918.

CIVIC EDUCATION.

975. **Eggleston, J. D.** First aid to the citizen-maker. Florida schoolroom, 24: 1–3, 10, May 1918.

Outlines a plan of supervision of rural teachers which "helps to break up the isolation to which the teacher in the small rural school is subjected; gives her a definite and interesting aim, and thus tends to hold her in one place; helps her to prepare herself while teaching, and puts life into a moribund course of study."

976. **Nunn, T. Percy.** The arithmetic of citizenship. School world (London) 20: 109–12, April 1918.

Continued from March, 1918, issue of School world. Discusses the theory of loans, life insurance, banks, etc.

977. Schools and patriotism. America, 19: 149–50, May 18, 1918.

Foundations of patriotism, need of a judicious text-book, etc.

978. **Taylor, Charles K.** Training young America. Outlook, 119: 107–10, May 15, 1918.

Describes experimental camp for boys, to develop health, self-reliance, and initiative. Training for citizenship.

IMMIGRANTS AND ILLITERATES.

979. **Gaus, John M.** A municipal program for educating immigrants in citizenship. National municipal review, 7: 237–44, May 1918.

Says that the burden of the task of educating immigrants must invariably fall upon the evening schools. It is a public enterprise and should be financed from public funds, and carried on as one of the regular educational functions of the municipality.

980. **Hamilton, W. I.** America-first campaign in Massachusetts. Journal of the New York state teachers' association, 5: 103–5, April 1918.

Typical conditions among immigrants in Massachusetts and the need for evening schools, specially trained teachers, etc.

981. **Lane, Franklin K.** What is it to be an American? National geographic magazine, 33: 348–54, April 1918. illus.

An address delivered before an educational conference in Washington, D. C.

REEDUCATION OF WAR INVALIDS.

982. **Cooley, E. G.** Practical methods of training the returned soldier. School and home education, 37: 205–7, May 1918.

An address made at the regular meeting of the Canadian club, March 5, 1917, telling something of the German method of dealing with the problem of training the returned soldier.

983. **Munroe, James Phinney.** The war's crippled; how they may be made assets both to themselves and to society. Survey, 40: 179–83, May 18, 1918.

Illustrated article on the vocational rehabilitation of wounded soldiers.

EDUCATION OF WOMEN.

984. **Greener, George C.** Prevocational training for girls as conducted by the North Bennet St. industrial school, Boston. Industrial-arts magazine, 7: 189–93, 227–31, May, June 1918. illus.

985. **Hosang, Bertha.** Physical education for Chinese women. Chinese students' monthly, 13: 373–81, May 1918.

986. **Leake, Albert H.** The vocational education of girls and women. New York, The Macmillan company, 1918. xix, 430 p. illus. 12°.

Bibliography: p. 405–20.

Takes up both education for the home and training for industry outside the home. Under the latter heading are comprised, besides general considerations, types of schools and organizations, evening schools, education for office service and salesmanship, and vocational guidance.

987. **Leland, Abby Porter.** Scouting education for girls. American school, 4: 106–7, April 1918.

Read before the Department of superintendence, National education association, Atlantic City, N. J., March 1, 1918.

988. **Van Kleeck, Mary.** A census of college women. Journal of the Association of collegiate alumnae, 11: 557–91, May 1918.

Report of an investigation for the Association of collegiate alumnae in co-operation with eight colleges for women and one co-educational university.

Occupations, earnings, training after college, marriages, etc., of women college graduates.

NEGRO EDUCATION.

989. **Abbott, Lyman.** Hampton revisited. Outlook, 119: 114–15, May 15, 1918.

One of the series of Knoll papers. Describes the methods in vogue in Hampton school, Va. Discusses negro education.

990. **Haynes, George E.** Negroes move North. I. Their departure from the South. Survey, 40: 115–22, May 4, 1918.

First paper of series. Presents reasons for Negro exodus to North and other parts of the country. Cites lack of educational advantages in the South as one of the reasons for migrating.

EXCEPTIONAL CHILDREN.

991. **Brannick, Catherine.** Principles of case work with the feeble-minded. Annals of the American academy of political and social science, 78: 60–70, May 1918.

Supervision and education of the feebleminded.

992. **Wallin, J. E. Wallace.** The pedagogical status of the feeble-minded school children. Elementary school journal, 18: 588–97, April 1918.

Paper read before Section L, Education, American association for the advancement of science, December 1917. In his study the writer says that he did not find any considerable number of feeble-minded school children who were able to do third grade work successfully, except possibly in one or two branches.

993. **Walsh, Elizabeth A.** A study of the speech defects of ninety-one ungraded class children. Journal of psycho-asthenics, 22: 108–25, December 1917.

Describes method of testing for speech defects, correction of defects, etc. Cites many examples.

EDUCATION EXTENSION.

994. **Sowers, J. I.** Correspondence school vs. evening school instruction. Teacher's journal, 17: 401–405, May 1918. illus.

Results and findings of a special survey made some years ago of the work of the correspondence schools in the Twin-Cities. Shows that while good is done in some cases, yet the correspondence school can never take the place of the living teacher in the class room.

LIBRARIES AND READING.

995. **Legler, Henry E.** Library ideals; compiled and edited by his son, Henry M. Legler. Chicago, London, The Open court publishing company, 1918. x, 78 p. front. (port.) 8°.

CONTENTS.—Preface.—The problem of the cities.—Certain phases of library extension.—Next steps.—The world of print and the world's work.—Library work with children.—Traveling libraries.—Administration of library funds.

996. **Williams, Sherman.** The relation of reading to life. Journal of the New York state teachers' association, 5: 88–93, April 1918.

What is being done and what might be done in our elementary schools to train children to learn to read that which is worth while.

BUREAU OF EDUCATION: RECENT PUBLICATIONS.

997. Agricultural instruction in the high schools of six eastern states; by C. H. Lane. Washington, 1918. 73 p. (Bulletin, 1918, no. 3)

998. The conifers of the northern Rockies; by J. E. Kirkwood. Washington, 1918. 61 p. illus. (Bulletin, 1917, no. 23)

999. Directory of universities and colleges. Washington, 1918. 17 p. (Reprint from Educational directory, 1917–18; Bulletin of the Bureau of education, 1917, no. 43)

1000. Directory of vocational education. Washington, 1918. 11 p. (Reprint from Educational directory, 1917–18; Bulletin of the Bureau of education, 1917, no. 43)

1001. Moral values in secondary education. A report of the commission on the reorganization of secondary education, appointed by the National education association. Prepared by Henry Neumann. Washington, 1918. 38 p. (Bulletin, 1917, no. 51)

1002. Principles and policies in home economics education; by Henrietta W. Calvin. Washington, 1918. 12 p. (Home economics circular, no. 4, April 1918)

1003. Safeguarding the home against fire; a fire prevention manual for the school children of America. Prepared for the United States Bureau of education by the National board of fire underwriters. 91 p. illus.

1004. Teaching English to aliens. A bibliography of textbooks, dictionaries and glossaries and aids to librarians; compiled by Winthrop Talbot. Washington, 1918. 76 p. (Bulletin, 1917, no. 39)

1005. Union list of mathematical periodicals; by David Eugene Smith and Caroline Eustis Seely. Washington, 1918. 60 p. (Bulletin, 1918, no. 9.)

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DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR
BUREAU OF EDUCATION

BULLETIN, 1918, No. 21

INSTRUCTION IN JOURNALISM IN INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION

By

JAMES MELVIN LEE
DIRECTOR, DEPARTMENT OF JOURNALISM
NEW YORK UNIVERSITY

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LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL.

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
BUREAU OF EDUCATION,
Washington, D. C., July 15, 1918.

SIR: Probably the chief advantage which a democracy has over other forms of government and society lies in the fact that it constitutes within itself a great school, stimulating its citizens to the acquirement of information about public affairs and training them in intelligent thinking on all subjects of public interest. In this school the public press is to a very large extent both textbook and teacher. As a democracy advances toward its ideals the truth of these principles is increasingly apparent. As the public interests which depend on the public press for presentation and as a channel of discussion become more numerous and complex the art of making the newspaper becomes more difficult and exacting and the need for systematic instruction in it becomes greater and more apparent. It is out of the feeling of this need that the schools of journalism and the less pretentious courses of instruction in journalism have grown up in many of our institutions of higher education and have become so numerous as to justify the publication of the accompanying manuscript, "Instruction in Journalism in Institutions of Higher Education," which has been prepared at my request by James Melvin Lee, director of the department of journalism, New York University.

Respectfully submitted.

P. P. CLAXTON,
Commissioner.

The SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR.

INSTRUCTION IN JOURNALISM IN INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION.

The reconstruction period of American history saw the first attempt on the part of an institution of higher education to add technical instruction in journalism to the curriculum. Strangely enough, the attempt was made in the South, at what was then known as Washington College, but what is to-day Washington and Lee University. Gen. Robert E. Lee had been made president of this college, and was seeking to train the youth of the South, not in the ways of war but in those of peace. Convinced that the press could aid greatly in the solution of the problems then confronting the South, he sent to the board of trustees of Washington College the following recommendation on March 30, 1869:

> I beg leave to submit for your consideration several propositions from the faculty which would not have been presented until your regular meeting in June but for the fact that, should they receive your approbation, the necessary changes in the catalogue of the present session, now preparing for publication, will be made.
>
> The proposition recommending the institution of 50 scholarships for young men proposing to make printing or journalism their profession * * *.
>
> I will only add that all the foregoing subjects have been maturely considered by the faculty and have received their unanimous assent.
>
> Respectfully submitted.
>
> (Signed) R. E. LEE,
> *Pres. W. C.*

The board of trustees, upon the receipt of President Lee's letter, adopted the following resolutions, already passed by the faculty of Washington College:

> *Resolved*, That the board of trustees be requested to authorize the faculty to appoint to scholarships, to be called ______________________ scholarships, not exceeding 50 in number, young men intending to make practical printing and journalism their business in life, such scholarships to be free from tuition and college fees on condition that, when required by the faculty, they shall perform such disciplinary duties as may be assigned them in a printing office or in other positions in the line of their professions for a time equal to one hour in each working day.
>
> *Resolved*, That the board of trustees be requested, in order to carry out the foregoing provision into effect, to make such arrangements for or with a printing office as may afford practical instruction and, so far as practicable, compensate employment in their business to such young men.

At the June meeting of the board the faculty reported, on press scholarships, that "a limited number of boys can receive instruction in the printing office of Messrs. Lafferty & Co., in this town, for the present, without charge or cost to the college." Notices about such instruction in journalism appeared in the catalogue of Washington College until 1878.

Two points in this—the first announcement of any "school of journalism," deserve special attention: First, practical instruction was to supplement the work of the classroom; second, the use of the preposition "for," in "to make such arrangements for or with a printing office as may afford practical instruction," shows clearly that Gen. Lee had a vision of a printing plant that might, at a later date, be installed at Washington College.

The suggestion that technical instruction in journalism be provided at Washington College was not welcomed by the fourth estate of the time. Frederic Hudson, the managing director of the New York Herald, when asked, "Have you heard of the proposed training school for journalists?" promptly replied, "Only casually, in connection with Gen. Lee's college, and I can not see how it could be made very serviceable. Who are to be the teachers? The only place where one can learn to be a journalist is in a great newspaper office." E. L. Godkin, of the New York Evening Post, characterized "the establishing of a special chair or the opening of a special class of journalism in colleges" as an absurdity. William Hyde, editor of the Missouri Republican, when asked "Is a school of journalism possible?" replied, "For any practical good; no." The idea was too progressive for the time, when the only way to learn law then was to help an old lawyer draw up papers after the student had swept out the office in the morning; the only way to study medicine was to help a doctor of the old school to mix his pills and powders after the student had cleaned the horse and washed the buggy. Therefore, the only way to study journalism was to help a printer wash the type after the student had dumped the editor's wastebasket. But Gen. Lee had a vision, and he tried to make his dream come true.

At the time, the only great editor, who favored a school of journalism, was Whitelaw Reid, of the New York Tribune. He ventured the prophecy that "we shall see the time when the strictly professional education of journalists will be far better than it is now." He advocated a school because its training would tend to develop "a professional esprit de corps that will discourage the habit of perpetual personal attacks upon individual editors rather than upon the newspapers they conduct and the principles they advocate." In the early seventies he delivered, at the New York University, a lecture on Schools of Journalism, in which he outlined a plan for such instruction. Clearly and succinctly did he state just what such a special department in a university might hope to accomplish. Mr. Reid said:

> West Point can not make a soldier, and New York University can not give us an assurance of an editor. But West Point can give the training, the discipline, and the special knowledge without which the born soldier would find his best efforts crippled, and with which men, not born to military greatness, may still do valuable service. This university may yet do as much for the embryo Bryants, Greeleys, Woods, Raymonds, Ritchies, and Hales, who are to transform American journalism into a profession, and emulate the laurels of these earlier leaders, with larger opportunities on a wider stage to more beneficent ends.

While these words were spoken of the proposed training at New York University, they are equally applicable to-day to the institutions of higher education now offering courses in journalism.

Andrew D. White, of Cornell, was another university president who wanted instruction in journalism added to the curriculum. On May 29, 1875, he wrote to a New York journalist:

> I have long wished to establish general and special courses in our colleges and universities with reference to those contemplating journalism as their profession in life.

Outlining the tentative plans at Cornell, he mentioned that one of the features was to be—

> practical instruction, but on the usual basis of laboratory practice in courses of scientific instruction in the university printing office, so as to give the students the advantage of a knowledge of the practical details of printing and the ability to take charge of any ordinary newspaper establishment at the outset.

He proposed to give, in addition to the baccalaureate degree, a special certificate to be known as "Certificate in Journalism." Unfortunately, circumstances prevented him from carrying out his program in detail. Yet, as a matter of record, mention should be made of this attempt at Cornell to offer courses in journalism, for some work was actually done by way of special lectures.

FAVORABLE OPINIONS.

In 1888 Eugene M. Camp, of the editorial staff of the Philadelphia Times, collected the opinions of a number of leading editors and publishers on technical instruction in journalism. Most of the editors interviewed saw no reason why journalism should not follow in the steps of law and medicine. Charles Emory Smith, of the Philadelphia Press, pointed out that, "while in law and in medicine there may be a substitute for this form of instruction, there is none in journalism." He emphasized also that the "direction and suggestion which will serve to guide the beginner and introduce him to journalism as a profession rather than a daily task must come from oral instruction." Such oral instruction, provided that it be from a journalist of ability and experience, would, in the opinion of George William Curtis, of Harper's Weekly, "be quite as serviceable to the tyro in journalism as the lectures of the professor of law or medicine to the young student." William Penn Nixon, of the Chicago Inter-Ocean, knew "no reason why a young journalist should not be as much improved by proper training as the embryo lawyer or doctor, if the teacher sent "his pupils right out to practical work under his eye." Col. A. K. McClure strongly favored such special education. The opinion of Henry Watterson, of the Louisville Courier-Journal, was, in a certain sense, an echo of that of Whitelaw Reid: "Such a school would no more make a journalist than West Point makes a soldier. But it would lay the needful foundations."

These opinions show a most wonderful change in the attitude of editors toward a special department in a university for instruction in journalism, for not quite a score of years had elapsed since Gen. Lee laid his proposition before the board of trustees of Washington College. No more striking change in editorial opinion may be found in the history of American journalism.

In presenting these interviews, along with others, to the alumni of the Wharton School of Finance of the University of Pennsylvania, Mr. Camp quoted still further from the letter of Henry Watterson, "No better site for such a department of a university can be found than the city of Philadelphia," as an introduction to his plea for the establishment of journalism courses at his alma mater.

A BEGINNING IN REAL TECHNICAL INSTRUCTION.

To the University of Pennsylvania belongs the honor of doing the first real work in technical instruction as that term is now understood. The courses were given by Joseph French Johnson, formerly of the Chicago Tribune. Prof. Johnson insisted that his work be known as "courses in journalism" and not as a "school of journalism." His idea was that a university should not profess to equip men fully for newspaper work, but merely to give them a certain training which would be useful in newspaper offices. He felt that, while the institution that would deserve to be called a school of journalism was both possible and desirable, the University of Pennsylvania was not then ready to create such a school and the public was not ripe for it. His work consisted of the following courses:

Newspaper practice.—This was really a course in news writing, where students were given various assignments to report university functions, ball games, etc. In this connection the city of Philadelphia was utilized in many minor ways at a news laboratory. The course also included a certain amount of copy reading and editorial revision.

Current topics.—This course, as its name implies, was a study of the questions of the day. Frequently various members of the university faculty were called in to discuss questions which naturally belonged to their departments. Students were required to prepare special articles on men and matters of moment and occasionally to write editorials on topics relating to current events.

History of journalism.—In this course the growth and development of the newspaper was taken up in detail by special lectures by the instructor. It was a one-semester course.

Art of newspaper making.—This course was devoted more to the mechanical side, with a discussion of the functions of the various editors, subeditors, reporters, etc. During the semester in which this class met trips were taken to the plants of several Philadelphia papers. The instructor did not regard this course as particularly important or valuable, but deemed it necessary in order that students should get some practical knowledge of the inside workings of a newspaper office—the business office as well as the editorial.

These courses, begun by Prof. Johnson at the University of Pennsylvania in 1893, were conducted until 1901, when he joined the faculty of New York University.

INFORMAL INSTRUCTION AT THE UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN.

Before Prof. Johnson left the University of Pennsylvania the University of Michigan had made a beginning in the matter of journalism instruction under the direction of its university editor. At the start there were no separate courses similar to those at the University of Pennsylvania, but the university editor simply gave assignments to students who had matriculated for the work. For the most part these assignments dealt with the news of the university and the items were later printed in the local university newspaper. Special instruction was given in such matters as proof reading, editorial revision of copy, etc. Other practical experience was secured on the University News Letter, which was mailed to Michigan editors and gave the news of the State university. Some of the students secured additional practice by corresponding for metropolitan dailies. Later Prof. Fred Newton Scott, of the department of rhetoric, took up the work with marked success. Prof. Scott is now president of the American Association of Teachers of Journalism.

MISSOURI PRESS ASSOCIATION.

In 1896 the Missouri Press Association urged the teaching of journalism in the State university. It was unable to secure favorable action until 1908 when a school of journalism, the first in an academic sense in the use of that term, was established at the State university. Its first dean, Walter Williams, in an address before the Missouri Press Association at Fulton, Mo., in May, 1909, presented the results of the year as follows:

Courses are given in history and principles of journalism, ethics of journalism, newspaper administration, news gathering, reporting, editorial writing, correquence, newspaper jurisprudence, the law of libel, illustrative art, comparative journalism and newspaper making, which includes all branches of newspaper work. Courses are given in history, English, sociology, economics, political science, government, psychology. While all knowledge is helpful to the journalist, that which best trains for the most effective leadership in his profession is emphasized.

The distinctive feature of the Missouri University school of journalism is the University Missourian, which affords a laboratory course in actual newspaper-making. Upon this small but well-balanced afternoon daily newspaper all the work other than mechanical is done by the students of the school, under the direction of the faculty. This is applied to training for journalism modern methods of education. As the hospital gives bedside instruction in training physicians, the practice court in training lawyers, and the practice school in training teachers, so this newspaper is used for the training of makers of newspapers. That it is not a model newspaper is manifest. It is entirely the work of freshmen journalists, of cub reporters. If they could in their first year make a model newspaper, the school would have succeeded even beyond the most sanguine hopes.

The course in journalism covers four years. It leads to one undergraduate degree, bachelor of science in journalism. It is not supposed that the awarding of this degree makes a journalist any more than the conferring of a diploma makes a lawyer or a doctor or an engineer. It is expected, however, that the man or woman who pursues faithfully the courses of instruction given at the University of Missouri will, at the end of four years, be better equipped for high service than the one who has not had such training.

COURSES IN OTHER INSTITUTIONS.

At the same time, other institutions were adding journalism subjects to the curriculum and organizing special departments for such instruction. On the Pacific coast, Merle Thorpe had organized the department of journalism at the University of Washington and had emphasized the State-service work which a school or department could render the State press. For some reason the movement had spread more rapidly in the West than in the East, which clung to more conservative policies about new subjects in the curriculum. In the West, especially among such State institutions as Wisconsin, Kansas, Indiana, etc., the universities were more willing to make the experiment. The remarkable growth of this technical instruction in journalism was due in some part to the offer of Joseph Pulitzer early in the present century "to found and permanently to endow a college of journalism in Columbia University," but more especially to his able discussion of the training necessary for a journalist as printed in an essay in the North American Review. Over a decade passed before Columbia provided such instruction on the Pulitzer foundation, but during that period other collegiate institutions on the Atlantic coast, including its nearest neighbor, New York University, began to offer technical work in the subject.

COURSE PROPOSED BY DR. ELIOT.

Before the publication of Pulitzer's essay on "The College of Journalism" in May, 1904, Charles William Eliot, then president of Harvard University, had prepared the following list of "subjects appropriate to a course of study leading to the profession of journalism":

Newspaper administration.—The organization of a newspaper office, functions of the publisher, circulation department, advertising department, editorial and "reportorial" departments, the financing of a newspaper; local, out-of-town and foreign-news service; editorial, literary, financial, sporting, and other departments.

Newspaper manufacture.—Printing presses, inks, paper, electrotyping and stereotyping processes, type composition, typesetting and type-casting machines, processes for reproducing illustrations, folding, binding, and mailing devices.

The law of journalism.—Copyright, libel, including civil, criminal, and seditious libel, rights and duties of the press in reporting judicial proceedings, liabilities of publisher, editor, reporter, and contributor.

Ethics of journalism.—Proper sense of responsibility to the public on the part of newspaper writers; to what extent should the opinions of the editor or owner of a newspaper affect its presentation of news? Relations of publisher, editor, and reporters as regards freedom of opinion.

History of journalism.—Freedom of the press, etc.

The literary form of newspapers.—Approved usages in punctuation, spelling, abbreviations, typography, etc.

Reenforcement of existing departments of instruction for the benefit of students of journalism: In English, reporting of news, news-letters, reviews, paragraph writing, editorial writing; in history, emphasis on contemporary history, government, and geography; in political science, emphasis on contemporary economic problems and financial administration.

In commenting upon this outline, Mr. Pulitzer said in the magazine article already mentioned:

> In the proposed course of study, drawn up with admirable quickness by President Eliot and widely discussed as if it had been definitely adopted, Dr. Eliot included instruction in the business administration of a newspaper. He mentioned specifically circulation, advertising, manufacture, and finance.
>
> My own ideas upon many parts of the course of study are still uncertain, but upon this one point they are very decided. I am sure that, if my wishes are to be considered, business instruction of any sort should not, would not, and must not form any part of the work of the college of journalism.
>
> The course outlined was made in a private letter of President Eliot, and was stated when published to be merely tentative. In spite of this explanation, many newspapers based their comment and criticism upon it as an accepted fact. I have the greatest admiration for the extraordinary genius and character of the president of Harvard, but nothing was further from my mind—nothing, in fact, is more inconsistent and incompatible with my intentions or repugnant to my feelings—than to include any of the business or commercial elements of a newspaper in what is to be taught in this department of Columbia College.

In view of Mr. Pulitzer's desire to keep the profession of journalism quite separate from the business of journalism, it is easy to understand his position taken in the preceding paragraphs. Most institutions, however, have not had the necessary endowment to make this distinction, and for practical reasons have offered courses similar to those outlined by ex-President Eliot. In the matter of academic qualifications necessary for matriculation in journalism courses, both Mr. Pulitzer and Mr. Eliot agreed. In a letter of the latter, written on May 5, 1903, conditions were thus outlined:

> I did not intend to indicate in my former letter that the instruction for intending journalists should be postgraduate instruction. On the contrary, I supposed that the greater part of this instruction would be received by candidates for the degree of B. A. or B. S., but that it might be continued in our graduate school. Let me point out also that this instruction might be made perfectly accessible to what we call "special students," who are not candidates for degrees at all. It often turns out that these special students ultimately obtain a degree, but they are free to enter the university without being candidates for a degree at all. There would, therefore, be no difficulty at Harvard in admitting to the instruction in journalism students who had taken no previous college or scientific school course.

At most institutions offering technical instruction in journalism, some provision is made for the training of students unable to meet the full academic requirements but prepared to take courses to advantage. Frequently such work is extramural in character. The State universities in the West often offer short-term courses for the benefit of State editors. At several of these institutions what is known as a "newspaper week" has become an established feature. On these occasions editors from all over the State gather at the university for an intelligent discussion of various problems connected with the editing and making of a newspaper and hear distinguished journalists outline the duties of the editor, not only to his community, but also to the country at large. Such gatherings are in striking contrast to the meetings of the official associations where only business problems are considered. Newspaper conferences held at Kansas, Missouri, and Wisconsin Universities have attracted much attention and promoted a more intelligent discussion on the part of newspaper critics toward certain weaknesses of modern journalism. Correspondence courses in journalism have been offered by a few State universities for the benefit of local editors and others interested in the subject.

Some of the by-products of this technical instruction in journalism may be noticed in passing. Of these, one of the most important has been the preparation by professors of journalism of a series of textbooks on various phases of newspaper work. Textbooks have been published by Profs. Bleyer and Hyde, of Wisconsin; Profs. Martin, Ross, and Williams, of Missouri; Prof. Harrington, of Illinois; Prof. Thorpe, of Kansas; Prof. Spencer, of Lawrence College; Profs. Cunliffe and Lomer, of the Pulitzer School, etc. The present writer has just published his History of American Journalism, in which the growth and development of the American newspaper is traced for the first time from its beginnings in 1704 down to the present time. Several of the schools have done excellent work in publishing practical and helpful bulletins dealing with newspaper problems. The University of Missouri, for example, has issued "Missouri Laws Affecting Newspapers," "Retail Advertising and the Newspaper," "The News and Country Papers," "Newspaper Correspondence," "Building a Circulation." The University of Washington, through its extension division, has published similar pamphlets on such subjects as "The Making of a Newspaper," "The Better Newspaper," "Newspaper Production," etc.

Technical courses in journalism vary from the single class in news writing at many of the smaller institutions to a well rounded-out curriculum of several courses in the larger universities. At the latter will be found courses in such subjects as news writing, newspaper editing, newspaper making, newspaper advertising, current political topics, editorial writing, special-feature and magazine writing, short-story writing, history and principles of journalism, etc. This list of technical courses is typical of such institutions as Wisconsin, for example. Many of the State universities have technical courses in agricultural journalism and in the country weekly. At New York University special attention is paid to courses dealing with the editing and making of magazines, industrial papers, etc. Practically every institution has had to add special courses to meet the needs of the field in which it was located.

Lest the pedantic critic think that technical instruction has been overemphasized, it might be well to say that courses in economics, finance, law, literature, politics, sociology, etc., have not been neglected in the curricula of schools of journalism. True to its trust, the school of journalism has had in mind the training of the students, not so much for the position to be filled immediately upon graduation as for that which the graduate should hold in years to come. The school of journalism has realized more and more that it will fail in its mission unless it gives its students a cultural background based for the most part upon the regular academic course. A realization of the necessity of such instruction in cultural subjects has led several institutions to require two years of purely academic work before allowing students to matriculate for the technical instruction in journalism.

INSTITUTIONS OFFERING WORK IN JOURNALISM.

The writer of this pamphlet is indebted to Carl H. Getz, secretary of the American Association of Teachers of Journalism, for the following list of universities and colleges offering work of some character in journalism:

STATE UNIVERSITIES.

Arkansas, California, Colorado, Florida, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Louisiana, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Maine, Montana, Nebraska, North Carolina, Ohio, Oklahoma, Oregon, South Carolina, South Dakota, Texas, Utah, Virginia, Washington, West Virginia, Wisconsin.

STATE COLLEGES AND SCHOOLS.

Colorado Agricultural College, Delaware College, Fort Hays (Kansas) Normal School, Georgia Technical School of Commerce, Indiana State Normal School, Iowa State College, Kansas State Agricultral College, Kansas State Normal School, Massachusetts Agricultural College, Missouri State Normal College, Nebraska State Normal School, North Dakota Agricultural College, Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical college, Pennsylvania State College, Purdue University, South Dakota State College, Wisconsin State Normal School.

ENDOWED COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES.

Austin College, Beaver College, Beloit College, Billings Polytechnic Institute, Boston University, Bucknell College, Buena Vista College, Carleton College, Colby College, College of Emporia, Columbia University, De Pauw University, Emmanuel Missionary College, Goucher College, Howard College, Kansas City Polytechnic Institute, Knox College, Lawrence College, Lehigh University, Leland Stanford Junior University, Marietta College, Marquette University, McKendree College, Miami University, Morningside College, Mount Union College, Municipal University of Akron, New York University, Pomona College, Ripon College, St. Xavier College, Toledo University, Trinity College, Tulane University, University of Chicago, University of Denver, University of Notre Dame, University of Pittsburgh, University of Southern California, Vassar College, Western Reserve University.

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DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR
BUREAU OF EDUCATION

BULLETIN, 1918, No. 23

STATE LAWS RELATING TO EDUCATION

ENACTED IN 1915, 1916, AND 1917

COMPILED BY
WILLIAM R. HOOD
DIVISION OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION
BUREAU OF EDUCATION

WASHINGTON
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1919

BULLETIN OF THE BUREAU OF EDUCATION FOR 1918.

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No. 33. Monthly record of current educational publications, September, 1918.
No. 34. Monthly record of current educational publications, October, 1918.
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No. 40. Recent State legislation for physical education. Thomas A. Storey and Willard S. Small.

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EDUCATIONAL LEGISLATION SERIES.

Digest of the laws regulating the administration, character, and finances of the public-school systems of the States of the Union. By Wellford Addis. *In* Annual Report of the Commissioner of Education, for the year 1893-94, vol. 2, p. 1063-1300.

Digest of school laws. *In* Annual Report of the Commissioner of Education, for the year 1903-4, vol. 1, p. 249-518.

State school systems: Legislation and judicial decisions relating to public education, October 1, 1904, to October 1, 1906. By Edward C. Elliott. 2d ed. rev. Washington, 1907. 156 p. (Bulletin, 1906, No. 3.)

State school systems: Legislation and judicial decisions relating to public education, October 1, 1906, to October 1, 1908. (II) By Edward C. Elliott. Washington, 1909. 364 p. (Bulletin, 1908, No. 7.)

State school systems: Legislation and judicial decisions relating to public education, October 1, 1908, to October 1, 1909. (III) By Edward C. Elliott. Washington, 1910. 305 p. (Bulletin, 1910, No. 2.)

Legislation and judicial decisions relating to education, October 1, 1909, to October 1, 1912. By James C. Boykin and William R. Hood. Washington, 1913. 304 p. (Bulletin, 1913, No. 55.)

Digest of State laws relating to public education in force January 1, 1915. By William R. Hood, *and others*. Washington, 1916. 987 p. (Bulletin, 1915, No. 47.)

State laws relating to education, enacted in 1915, 1916, and 1917. By William R. Hood. Washington, 1918. 249 p. (Bulletin, 1918, No. 23.)

STATE LAWS RELATING TO EDUCATION.

INTRODUCTION.

In an earlier publication of the Bureau of Education—Bulletin, 1915, No. 47, "Digest of State laws relating to public education"—an effort was made to summarize all State school laws of a general nature which were in force on January 1, 1915. The purpose of the bulletin presented here is to supplement the bulletin of 1915 with a compilation of the enactments of 1915, 1916, and 1917 which relate to education. The legislatures of 43 States were in session in 1915—all in fact except those of Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Mississippi, and Virginia, which meet in even-numbered years. In 1916, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Massachusetts, Mississippi, New Jersey, New York, Rhode Island, South Carolina, and Virginia held sessions of their legislative bodies, and a special session was held in California. All State legislatures which met in 1915 were again in session in 1917, except that of Alabama, whose lawmakers meet once in four years.

The legislation of the years included in this compilation is presented in digest, following the style of the bulletin which it is designed to supplement. It is intended to include all enactments excepting those of distinctly local character and excepting ordinary appropriations. The same method of presentation is used as in former publications of this character. The various items are classified under an outline which begins with general State administrative provisions and proceeds through the entire public-school system. The enactments of the Legislatures of Alaska, Hawaii, the Philippines, and Porto Rico are included.

PLAN OF CLASSIFICATION.

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  - a. General.
  - b1. State boards.
  - b2. State officers.
  - b3. State inspection of schools.
  - c1. County boards.
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  - e. School meetings; elections; qualifications for voters.
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  e. Military schools.
  f. Other technical and professional.

R. PRIVATE AND ENDOWED HIGHER INSTITUTIONS: STATE CONTROL.
  - a. Higher institutions.
  - b. Corporations of an educational character.

S. LIBRARIES AND MUSEUMS.
  - a. General.
  - b. Public-school libraries.

T. EDUCATION OF SPECIAL CLASSES.
  - a. General.
  - b. Deaf and dumb.
  - c. Blind.
  - d. Crippled and deformed.
  - e. Feeble-minded.
  - f. Tuberculous children.

U. WELFARE OF INFANTS AND DELINQUENTS.
  - a. General.
  - b. Wrongs to children.
  - c. Juvenile courts.
  - d. Custody of children.
  - e. Truant, detention, reform schools, and schools for dependents.

STATE LAWS RELATING TO EDUCATION, ENACTED IN 1915, 1916, AND 1917.

A. GENERAL ADMINISTRATIVE CONTROL AND SUPERVISION OF PUBLIC EDUCATION.

(a) General.

Hawaii: Authorizing and directing the governor and the superintendent of public instruction to request the Commissioner of Education of the United States to undertake a Federal survey of the schools of the Territory of Hawaii. J. R. No. 1, Apr. 11, 1917.

Louisiana: "In relation to free public schools and to regulate public education in the State of Louisiana; to provide a revenue for the same, and to impose certain penalties; to apply fines imposed by district courts and amounts collected on bonds for the purpose of public education; to provide free passage of school children over certain ferries, bridges, and roads, and to punish violation of such provisions; and to repeal acts 214 of 1912 and 39 of 1910, and all other laws in conflict with the provisions of this act."

State board of education to consist of State superintendent of public education and five members appointed by, but not removable by, the governor; term of appointive members, five years, one appointed each year; compensation same as members of legislature. Superintendent to be secretary. Board to prepare rules for the government of the public schools and give directions as to branches to be taught. Board shall enforce uniformity of textbooks. It may require reports of parish [county] superintendents and teachers.

Parish-school board to consist of one member elected by qualified voters of each police jury ward of the parish; overlapping terms; term of each, six years; compensation, $3 per day and 5 cents per mile traveled when attending meetings of board. Board may appoint an executive committee of three members. Board a body corporate. Board shall appoint a parish superintendent for a term of four years. It shall report to State board of education. Board to determine number of schools to be opened, location of schoolhouses, and number of teachers to be employed and shall select teachers from nominations made by parish superintendent, but by two-thirds vote teacher may be elected without such nomination. Board may make rules not inconsistent with the law or the regulations of State board. High schools may be established with approval of State board of education. Said State board may extend financial aid to approved practical, industrial, and agricultural courses. Parish board shall use school funds, except those voted for special purposes, to provide equal salaries for all schools of the parish. Communities may vote special taxes for better facilities, longer sessions, etc. Free passage for school children over roads, bridges, and ferries over which the State, parish, or municipality exercises any control. No school with an average attendance below 10 shall be established, except with approval of State board of education. No public school to be run in combination or connection with a church school.

Parish school board to divide parish into convenient school districts. District may be in two parishes. Parish school board may appoint local school directors for each school and prescribe their duties.

Governor to fill vacancy in office of State superintendent. Salary of superintendent, $5,000 a year. State board of education may appoint assistant superintendents, inspectors, etc. When any parish or other subdivision receives special or continuous service, it may contribute its proportion of expense. Powers and duties of State superintendent: To have general supervision over ele-

mentary, high, and State schools; to be ex officio a member of the board of supervisors of institutions under control of the State or aided in whole or in part by the State; to visit all the parishes of the State as often as practicable; to keep an account of all orders drawn or countersigned by him on the auditor. He shall make a biennial report. Attorney general to give advice regarding school laws to State superintendent, State board of education, or parish superintendent.

Parish school board to elect a parish superintendent for term of four years. He must have "recognized executive ability," hold at least a first-grade certificate, and have had at least three years' experience in teaching. Salary, not exceeding $4,000 nor less than $900, except in New Orleans. School board may appoint assistant superintendents, supervisors, etc. County superintendent must report annually and keep a record of all his transactions. He must maintain an office at point designated by parish board. Must report quarterly to parish board. Parish board to provide for teachers' institutes. Incompetent and unworthy teacher may be dismissed by parish board on recommendation of parish superintendent.

State board of education to have entire charge of the examination of public-school teachers. Board shall appoint an examining committee. Following grades of certificates provided for: Special high school, valid five years; first grade, valid five years; second grade, valid three years; third grade, valid one year. State board to determine subjects. Said board may exempt from examination graduates of approved colleges and normal schools. Questions prepared by examining committee; examination conducted by parish superintendent; papers returned to State superintendent. State board may renew first-grade certificates and approved diplomas. Board may prescribe teacher-training courses for public and private schools offering work at least two years in advance of the high school.

Parish school boards to enumerate educable children every four years. Said boards may provide transportation for children residing more than 2 miles from school. Said boards may rent sixteenth section lands, and sell timber and mineral on the same.

New Orleans school board to consist of five members elected at congressional election; term, six years, two or one elected every two years. Vacancies filled by governor until next election. Board a body corporate, etc. To select a superintendent for term of four years and may elect assistants. To elect an attendance officer and other necessary officers, etc. Powers and duties of New Orleans school board: (1) To have custody of buildings and other school property; (2) to prescribe rules governing eligibility of teachers, principals, etc.; (3) to employ teachers, principals, etc., and fix their compensation, but teachers now employed are permanent until dismissed on proved charges, except that women's employment ceases when they marry; (4) to elect teachers in elementary schools from eligible lists in the order of merit (appointment of teachers may be made permanent after three years of service); (5) to adopt a course of study on recommendation of superintendent and to appropriate annually not less than $2,000 for free textbooks; (6) to provide elementary schools, high schools, kindergartens, libraries and museums, evening schools, vacation schools, playgrounds and gymnasiums, normal schools, trade schools, commercial schools, social centers, instruction for adults, and special instruction for delinquent, dependent, and defective children; (7) to have prepared and printed an annual report; (8) may make appropriations for teachers' retirement fund; (9) to hold meetings at least once a month; (10) may maintain one or more normal schools; (11) to enumerate educable children every four years; (12) to present needs of schools to the council each year. Commissioner of public finance shall be treasurer of school funds. Commission council of the city to include in its budget amounts necessary to meet needs of the schools.

Act No. 120, July 5, 1916.

Maryland: Amending the school law generally.

Digest of law as amended.—At head of State department of education is State board of education. Educational affairs of county under control of county board of education; of school district, under care of district board of school trustees. State board of education to consist of seven citizens appointed by the governor; term, seven years, one to be appointed each year; governor may remove a member for cause, but member entitled to public hearing. County board of education to consist of six citizens in counties of Baltimore, Carroll, Frederick, Dorchester, Washington, and Montgomery, and three members in each of other counties, all to be appointed by governor; term, six years, two, or one, as the case requires, being appointed every two years; State superintendent, with approval of governor, may remove a member for cause after allowing a public hearing on charges. District board of trustees to consist of three members appointed by county board of education; term, three years, one being appointed each year.

State board shall hold meetings quarterly, and special meetings may be held. State superintendent shall be executive officer, secretary, and treasurer of board. Said board shall determine the educational policies of the State and enact by-laws for the administration of the school system of the State. Board shall exercise through State superintendent general supervision over the public schools and shall consult and advise with subordinate school officers. Board shall prescribe rules for sanitary construction of schoolhouses and outhouses; it shall prescribe rules for grading and standardizing schools, both with advice of State superintendent. Board shall prescribe minimum requirements for all certificates, diplomas, and academic, collegiate, professional, and university degrees; board's assent to the issuance of such must be obtained. Board shall prescribe courses of study for elementary, high, and normal schools. Board shall prescribe rules for the issuance of teachers' certificates and for the acceptance of normal, college, and university diplomas. Members of board and State superintendent shall be trustees of State normal schools. Board shall prescribe rules for taking biennial school census, and a uniform series of blanks; it shall require private educational institutions to report annually; it shall conduct investigations of educational needs and may employ expert assistants for such purpose; it shall biennially submit to the governor an annual State school budget; it shall submit an annual report to the governor; it shall recommend school legislation to the governor and legislature.

The State superintendent of schools shall be appointed by the State board of education; term, four years; salary fixed by board. He shall explain the meaning of school laws and by-laws of board, and shall decide controversies arising under the school law. He may withhold appropriations to educational institutions and county school boards for violations of the law or of the by-laws of the State board. He shall be executive officer of the State board. shall hold conferences of school officers, shall publish pamphlets and promote education, and shall receive and examine all reports required by law. He shall pass upon school sites and buildings and upon plans of buildings to cost more than $300, and such plans must have his approval. He shall, subject to State board, certificate all teachers in the public schools. He shall prepare and submit to State board courses of study for elementary, high, and normal schools. He shall, under State board, have charge of State department of education and shall nominate to board professional and clerical assistants. Following professional assistants provided for: (1) Assistant State superintendent; (2) supervisor of high schools, (3) supervisor of rural schools, (4) white supervisor of colored schools, (5) such other clerical and professional assistants as State board may determine. Superintendent shall be subject to State board, shall direct taking of biennial census, and prepare reports required of board.

County board of education shall hold two regular meetings each school year (one in May), and special meetings may be held. Shall receive no compensation, but each member shall be entitled to $100 annually for expenses. Board a body corporate; title to all school property vested in board. County superintendent shall be executive officer, secretary, and treasurer of county board. County board shall carry into effect the school laws and by-laws of State board. County board shall divide the county into school districts and locate and maintain needed schools. It shall, with approval of State superintendent, provide sites, buildings, and equipment. It may receive donations of sites and buildings. It may take a site of not exceeding 5 acres by right of eminent domain. It shall provide suitable and convenient outhouses or water closets. It shall consolidate schools when practicable and shall when necessary pay for transportation of pupils. It shall on recommendation of county superintendent, purchase necessary textbooks, supplies, and equipment. It shall, on recommendation of county superintendent, appoint all principals and teachers and may dismiss them, for cause. Subject to State board, county board shall prescribe courses of study and supply printed copies to teachers and interested citizens. It shall grade and standardize schools. It shall cause to be taken the biennial school census. It shall submit annually to county commissioners a school budget, and said commissioners shall levy a tax sufficient to raise amount estimated to be needed; not less than 34 cents on $100 shall be levied and not exceeding 40 cents shall be levied, except with consent of commissioners. County board shall make reports required by State board. County board shall submit annually a printed report.

County superintendent of schools appointed by county board of education; term, four years; appointment with approval of State superintendent, superintendent must hold certificate of administration and supervision. Salary, not less than $1,800, as fixed by county board; State to pay one-half up to one-half of $3,000. State superintendent may remove county superintendent for cause, after hearing. He shall execute the school laws and shall determine appeals, subject to appeal to State superintendent within 30 days. He shall make recommendations as to sites, buildings, etc. He shall represent State superintendent in examinations of teachers. He shall organize county and local institutes. He shall visit the schools and standardize the same. Various other minor supervisory and clerical duties prescribed. In each county employing not fewer than 100 teachers at least one primary supervisor shall be employed; salary not less than $1,200. State to pay one-half; two counties each with fewer than 100 teachers may combine to employ a supervisor. There shall be employed in each county at least one attendance officer. There shall be employed in each county at least one statistical and stenographic clerk, and other clerical and professional assistants.

District trustees shall hold two regular meetings in each school term and special meetings may be held. Trustees shall have care of school property and shall attend to repairs and charge to county fund. They shall visit schools and see that premises are sanitary. They may recommend the dismissal of the principal teacher. No new schoolhouse district shall be formed containing fewer than 50 children between 6 and 14 years of age, and no old district shall be left with fewer than such number.

Whenever an application is made to district board, signed by 25 citizens of the district where school is situated, requesting the use of the school building for a nonpartisan gathering for the discussion of public questions, or for other civic, social, and recreational activities, the said school authorities shall allow the free use of such building for such purposes, but such meeting shall be held at hours when building is not used for its principal purpose. When the citizens of a community are organized into a nonpartisan, nonsectarian, nonexclusive association for the discussion of public questions, such organization may, on request to county board or to district trustees and in the discretion of such authorities, have the free use of any school building for weekly, biweekly, or monthly gatherings, but such meetings shall be held at times when building is not used for principal purpose; other civic, social, and recreational activities may be provided for by trustees or county board. Persons so using building shall be responsible for damage to school property.

Schools shall be kept open not less than 180 days, and for 10 months if possible. When a school numbers more than 40 children, an assistant teacher may be employed by county board of education. When average attendance of a school for two consecutive terms falls below 12, county board may close school and pay transportation of pupils to other schools. Exhibition of school work to be held in each school once a year. Schools to be kept open five days a week for not less than six hours a day.

No person shall be employed as county superintendent, assistant superintendent, supervisor, principal, or teacher, unless such person holds a certificate of required grade issued by State superintendent. Uniform examinations with questions prepared by State superintendent. County superintendent to conduct examination and forward papers to State superintendent. Details of examinations subject to rules of State board of education. Following certificates to be granted: (1) Certificate of administration and supervision; (2) certificate in elementary school supervision; (3) certificate in supervision (special subjects); (4) high-school principal's certificate; (5) high-school teacher's certificate (academic branches); (6) high-school teacher's certificate (special subjects); (7) elementary school principal's certificate; (8) elementary teacher's certificate (first grade); (9) elementary certificate (second grade); (10) elementary certificate (third grade); (11) provisional emergency certificate, issued by county superintendent with approval of State superintendent. County board may suspend any teacher, principal, supervisor, or assistant superintendent, and recommend revocation of certificate to State superintendent. State superintendent shall keep record of applicants' qualifications, certificates issued, etc. Teachers with highest possible qualifications shall be employed. Teachers' certificates shall be classified by county superintendent as first or second class, according to scholarship, executive ability, personality, and teaching power of holder. Teachers' salaries to be paid monthly. No white teacher shall receive a salary of less than $300 per annum.

When any person has taught in any of the public or normal schools of the State for 25 years, is over 60 years old, and without the means of comfortable support, State superintendent may allow such person a pension of $200 per annum. Said superintendent may in extraordinary cases waive the age limit. Pension to be paid by State.

All white youths between 6 and 21 years of age may attend any public school whose studies they may be able to pursue, but where there are grade schools, principal and county superintendent shall determine where pupil shall attend. District trustees may suspend or expel a pupil for cause, subject to appeal to county superintendent.

School board of Baltimore and each county board of education shall adopt and purchase textbooks and school supplies; when so purchased, such books and supplies shall be furnished free for use in the public schools; adoptions shall be for not less than three years. Said boards shall provide for the distribution and safekeeping of such books and supplies; they shall keep a separate account of moneys received from the State for such purchase, and shall report the same annually to State superintendent.

State board of education and State superintendent shall be the board of trustees of State normal schools. Board shall appoint principal and instructors, prescribe course of study, and administer the affairs of such schools generally. There shall be maintained at each normal school a two-year course or courses (above the high school) for training elementary teachers; there may be maintained special industrial courses; there may be maintained a four-year course of high-school grade. Maryland students who obligate themselves to teach in the State shall be admitted free of tuition and have free use of textbooks; other students shall pay tuition as fixed by board.

County board of education may establish high schools and control the same. Two groups of high schools. Requirements for first group: (1) Enrollment of not less than 80 with average attendance of not less than 70; (2) must have necessary number of teachers; (3) four-year high-school course; (4) salary of principal shall be not less than $1,200 and higher under certain conditions, and teachers must be paid above certain minimum salaries; (5) provision for manual training and domestic science courses and for commercial or agricultural course; instructors must hold appropriate certificates. Requirements for second group: (1) Enrollment of not less than 35, with average attendance of not less than 30; (2) not fewer than two teachers for regular high-school work; (3) three-year high-school course; (4) must pay above certain minimum salaries to principal and teachers; (5) provision for manual training and domestic science courses and for agriculture; (6) principal and teachers must hold appropriate certificates; course may be extended to four-year course. County board may, with approval of State superintendent, maintain in a school of the first group a two-year teachers' training course to cover the two years above the tenth grade; course to be prescribed by State board of education. State superintendent shall annually inspect or cause to be inspected by an assistant all high schools receiving State aid. State aid to first group: $600 for principal, $300 for each of first three assistants doing regular high-school work, $400 for each of two special teachers, and $100 for each additional regular high-school teacher, but the aggregate of State aid to one school shall not exceed $2,500 per annum. State aid to second group: $600 for principal, $400 for one assistant doing regular high-school work, $400 for one special teacher. A Baltimore high school shall receive maximum amount.

County board shall establish one or more schools in each election district for colored persons between 6 and 20 years of age, if number of colored persons warrants. Such schools shall be maintained at least 140 days. Each such school shall be under the direction of a district board of trustees appointed by county board of education.

State appropriations for schools and moneys derived from State school taxes shall constitute the "general State school fund"; no special appropriation to any county, academy, college, or university may be paid from said fund Apportionments made quarterly to Baltimore City and the several counties on the certificate of State superintendent. The apportionment for common schools (other than normal schools, high schools, colored industrial schools, administrative and supervisory expenses, etc.) shall be made two-thirds on basis of population between 6 and 14 years of age and one-third on the basis of aggregate number of days of attendance during preceding school year, but attendance in State-aided high schools shall not be counted. Apportionment may be withheld from Baltimore City or any county which fails to comply with this act.

County board shall, when in its judgment there is need thereof, provide suitable room or rooms in connection with a colored school for the establishment of a central colored industrial school. State superintendent shall inspect, or cause to be inspected, such schools and shall approve or disapprove the same. State aid of $1,500 annually to county maintaining approved colored industrial school; one-half to be paid to said school and one-half to a colored supervisor of colored schools. Said school and employment of supervisor to be under control of county board of education. Said school must have an average attendance of 30 pupils, and there must be at least 10 colored schools in the county wherein it is situated, but State superintendent may recommend the payment of at least a part (not exceeding one-half) of the said $1,500 to a county maintaining an industrial school and having fewer than 10 colored schools.

Board of school commissioners of Baltimore shall appoint one chief attendance officer, male or female, and assistants not to exceed 18 in number, compensation to be fixed and paid by mayor and city councilmen. County board of education of each county shall appoint one such officer, male or female, and may appoint additional officers. Every child residing in any county between 7 and 13 years of age shall attend some public school for the entire period during which the public schools are in session. Exemptions: (1) Children receiving instruction elsewhere during such period in studies usually taught in the public schools; (2) children excused by superintendent or principal for "necessary and legal absence"; (3) children whose mental or physical condition is such as to render instruction inexpedient or impracticable. Person having control of such child shall cause such child to attend school as required by law. Every child of 13 years of age or 14 years of age shall attend school at least 100 days in the year, and shall attend for entire term if not lawfully employed. Exemptions as above. Every child 15 years of age or 16 years of age shall attend school 100 days, unless such child has completed the work of the public elementary schools. Exemptions as above.

Ch. 506, Apr. 18, 1916.

Vermont: An act to amend and codify the elementary school laws.

State board of education to consist of five members appointed by the governor; term, five years, one being appointed each year; governor shall fill vacancies and may remove a member for cause; four regular meetings annually and special meetings may be held; compensation, $4 per day each and necessary expenses. *Duties:* (*a*) To employ a State commissioner of education and fix his salary; (*b*) through said commissioner and his assistants to (1) prepare uniform courses of study for the elementary schools; (2) prepare courses of study for teacher-training classes and normal schools; (3) prepare courses of study for State-aided departments of high schools; (4) enforce school laws; (5) supervise expenditure of State school money and inspect institutions for which such money is used; (6) inform people of the State as to educational conditions; (7) provide for proper educational gatherings and for cooperation with the public library commission; (8) locate without cost to the State a normal school when funds are provided by private gift or bequest; (9) receive gifts and bequests. Said board shall make rules and regulations for the execution of its powers and duties and of those of officers under its control. Said board shall report biennially to the legislature. Commissioner of education shall be appointed for an indefinite term; may be removed by majority vote of entire board; he shall report to board as board may direct. Board may employ such inspectors, clerks, lecturers, and other officers and may distribute such books and educational circulars as it may deem proper.

Town schools.—A town shall constitute a district for school purposes. Voters of a school district incorporated by special act shall not vote in town meetings on school questions. Town shall take charge of schoolhouses and property belonging thereto and debts shall be audited and paid by town. Women may vote on school matters and hold school offices. Town may levy tax to provide sites, buildings, and repairs.

School board.—Board of school directors shall consist of three citizens; term, three years, one elected each year; vacancies filled by selectmen until next election. *Duties:* To have charge of the school property and the management of the schools; designate school to be attended by each pupil and determine according to law location of schools; employ teachers and fix their compensation;

examine claims against the town for school purposes and draw orders for their payment; be liable in civil action for claims illegally paid; recommend to town amount needed for school purposes; make annual report to town; render to town auditors an annual statement which shall be submitted to town. Compensation of directors shall be such as the town votes. Directors shall appoint a clerk who shall serve until his successor is appointed; he shall keep a record of proceedings of board and take the annual census of children of school age. Trustees of incorporated schools shall report annually to the commissioner of education. School board shall annually, with approval of superintendent, designate school each pupil is to attend and shall furnish teacher a list of pupils assigned to his school.

Supervision.—State board of education shall appoint a sufficient number of superintendents to insure supervision of all public schools and shall designate schools over which each superintendent shall have supervision; term of superintendents, at discretion of State board. Said superintendents shall report annually to directors of towns supervised and shall report at least once a week to commissioner of education. Salaries fixed by State board, but town or incorporated district of 25 or more schools may employ its own superintendent at a salary of not less than $1,500, the State paying $1,200 of such salary and one-half of additional salary, but not to exceed $2,000 in all. State board shall provide for regional or State meetings of superintendents who shall attend, actual expenses to be paid. Commissioner of education shall employ such State supervisors as State board may authorize, State board to fix compensation.

Classification and courses.—Upon petition of six or more residents of any community having eight or more pupils, a special town meeting shall be called to determine the question of establishing a school in said community. Schools other than secondary shall be classified as kindergarten and as elementary schools with eight or nine grades. State board shall prepare a course of study for elementary schools. Elementary schools shall be competent in number; such schools may be consolidated in the interest of convenience and efficiency.

School year and term.—School year shall extend from July 1 to June 30. In school not less than 34 weeks shall constitute a school year; school may be closed by reason of contagious disease or with approval of superintendent.

School age, etc.—"Legal pupils" shall include persons between 6 and 18 years old, but a person over 18 shall not be deprived of school privileges; child under 6 shall be admitted only to kindergarten unless becoming 6 before January 1 following beginning of fall term; after beginning of fall term no child between 6 and 8 shall be admitted without consent of superintendent; directors determine residence of pupil, but appeal lies to commissioner of education.

Attendance.—Every child between 8 and 16 years of age shall attend school for the full term of 170 days. Exemptions: Those mentally or physically disabled, those otherwise furnished with approved instruction, those having completed the elementary course or who are legally excused. If a person in control of a child who has become 16 permits such child to become enrolled, such child shall attend for the term unless lawfully excused. If a child has completed the eight or nine year elementary course or is over 15 and has completed six years of work, he may be excused by the superintendent. Teacher shall report to superintendent and truant officer the absence of a child required to attend. Truant officer shall serve notice on person having control of child unlawfully absent, and if child is not sent to school, prosecution shall be instituted against such person in control; superintendent may, and truant officer shall, stop child required to attend who is found out of school in school hours and shall take such child to school. When it is claimed that a child is physically or mentally unable to attend, superintendent may have health officer examine child. Truant officer shall receive $2 per day unless otherwise provided. Superintendent may notify overseer of the poor in case of children found indigent, and said overseer shall provide necessary clothing. Directors may receive nonresident pupils and pay tuition fees into town school fund; a child who can be better accommodated in another town may attend therein and town of his residence shall pay tuition. Incorrigible truants and moral delinquents may be committed to the Vermont Industrial School.

Discipline.—School authority may punish pupil with any reasonable form of punishment, including corporal punishment. Pupil may be dismissed for cause. Secret societies forbidden in public schools.

Transportation and board.—Pupil living 1½ miles or more from elementary school shall be furnished transportation when transportation is feasible; if transportation is not feasible, board shall be furnished; State aid for transportation and board; school board may furnish transportation to pupils living less than 1½ miles from school.

Registers and returns.—Commissioner of education may prescribe forms for school registers and for reports; he shall annually transmit such registers to superintendents; teachers shall keep therein a record of attendance, etc.; superintendent shall examine the same and it must have his approval. Town clerk shall annually, and oftener if required, report to commissioner of education.

Fire drills.—Person in charge of a public or private school shall hold fire drills at least once a month.

Miscellaneous.—School board may provide instruction in vocal music, physical culture, and drawing. The last half day before Memorial Day shall be devoted to exercises commemorative of the history of the Nation during the Civil War. Evening schools may be maintained for persons above compulsory age.

Examination and certification of teachers.—The State board of education shall provide for the examination and certification of teachers, fix the standard required for certification, classify grades of certificates, prepare and procure the printing of questions for examinations, and make necessary regulations for certification and revocation. Existing valid certificates remain valid for time for which issued unless revoked by State board of education. Said board shall make regulations relating to the recognition of teachers' credentials issued in other States. Said board may employ clerical assistance for carrying out the provisions relating to the examination and certification of teachers. Contract void unless teacher hold valid certificate. No certificate or permit issued to any person under 17 years of age.

Teacher-training in high schools.—State board of education shall establish teacher-training courses in such high schools, seminaries, or academies as it may select for training elementary teachers. Said board shall prepare courses for such institutions. Said board shall prescribe rules for entrance to and graduation from such courses. Qualified pupils residing in towns where such training is not given may attend such courses elsewhere without payment of tuition. Salaries of teachers in such courses shall be fixed by board and paid by State.

Teachers' salaries, tenure, etc.—Board of town school directors shall employ teachers and fix their salaries at not less than $8 per week each. State aid for rural teachers: (*a*) $4 per week for each teacher holding a life certificate or having had two years of professional training following graduation from a first-class high school; (*b*) $3 per week for each teacher having taught 80 weeks and holding a first-grade certificate, or having had two years of professional training preceded by two years in an approved high school, or having had one year of professional training following graduation from a first-class high school; (*c*) $2 per week for each teacher having had one year of professional training preceded by three years in an approved high school; after July 1, 1916, State board may make a different classification from that herein made. "Rural school" defined to mean any school having not more than two teachers and offering instruction in not less than six grades. Contract with teacher shall be in triplicate and shall specify time of beginning service, certificate held, salary, etc. Teacher shall be entitled to be paid monthly.

Time allowed teachers.—Not exceeding five days in any year may be spent by a teacher in attending educational meetings without loss of salary; no teacher shall be required to teach on a legal holiday.

Teachers' pensions.—On recommendation of school directors, town meeting may vote to pension any teacher who has taught in the public schools at least 30 years; pension paid from town school funds; shall not exceed one-half average salary for last five years of service. Vermont State teachers' retirement fund established. To consist of (*a*) teachers' contributions; (*b*) contributions of Vermont Teachers' Retirement Fund Association; (*c*) gifts, bequests, etc.; (*d*) appropriations by the legislature; (*e*) income derived from investment of fund. Management of fund shall be vested in a board consisting of governor, commissioner of education, State treasurer, president of Vermont Teachers' Retirement Association, and one member elected by said association biennially. State to pay not exceeding $10,000 a year to duplicate sum contributed by teachers during preceding year. State treasurer is treasurer of fund, which must be invested as savings banks may invest. Retirement fund board shall make rules for the disbursement of pensions; said board shall report biennially to legislature. Teacher having taught 25 years in public schools of the State shall receive annuity equal to one-half average salary for last five years of service, but not exceeding $500 per annum. Teachers having taught 30 years, 20 in the State, shall receive same annuity as above. Incapacitated teacher shall receive such annuity as may be fixed by retirement fund board, but not to exceed annuity above mentioned. Principals and superintendents construed as teachers. Applicant for retirement must present proof of eligibility and must show that he has contributed a sum equal to at least 40 per cent of annuity for which he applies. No teacher entitled to the benefits of this act on reaching the age of 65 shall receive such benefits unless he retires or receives a permit from the State board of education.

Taking land for school purposes.—The selectmen of a town may, upon application of the board of school directors, take land for school purposes under the right of eminent domain, but aggrieved party may appeal to county court.

School building and equipment.—Each town shall provide suitable schoolhouses and may levy a tax therefor. School directors shall provide a flagpole and cause the United States flag to be displayed thereon during school hours.

Textbooks and supplies.—Board of school directors shall provide all textbooks, appliances, and supplies required for public elementary schools and the same shall be paid for by the town; said board shall provide for the care and custody of the same; person in control of pupil responsible for damage to the same; except as otherwise provided, directors shall select textbooks and supplies.

School taxes and funds.—A town shall annually appropriate for school purposes not less than 40 cents on the dollar of the "grand list" (approximately 4 mills on the dollar of property valuation); town treasurer shall keep a separate account of school funds and shall pay out same on order of school directors.

United States deposit money.—State treasurer shall receive United States deposits with the State; United States deposits apportioned to towns and unorganized territory in proportion to population.

Permanent school fund.—To consist of $240,000 returned by the National Government to the State in settlement of Civil War claims, the Huntington fund, the United States deposit money, and such additions as may be made thereto. Trustees of said fund to consist of three persons appointed by the governor. Said trustees shall have care and control of said fund and shall invest the same according to law.

Town school fund.—The selectmen of the town shall have charge of the real and personal estate appropriated to the use of the schools therein, unless otherwise provided by law or by the donor; they shall lease school lands and loan town school funds on proper security, and shall render account thereof.

State school tax.—A State tax of 10 cents on the dollar of the "grand list" (approximately 1 mill on the dollar of valuation) shall be annually levied for public-school purposes.

Miscellaneous.—Grand juries shall annually inquire whether towns have expended the required sums for the support of schools; superintendents shall also investigate the same.

Application of act.—The provisions of this act shall apply to specially incorporated districts, when not in conflict with charters. Supervisors of unorganized towns and gores shall have powers and duties of school directors.

Appropriation, consolidation, and distribution.—Appropriation of $130,000 annually for consolidated school fund. Receipts from 10-cent State tax, the $130,000 above mentioned, and the income from the permanent fund shall constitute the "consolidated school fund." Apportioned annually by State board of education as follows: (*a*) For the office of State board of education, including clerk hire, salaries of executive officers, etc., $24,000; for salaries and expenses of superintendents, $100,000; for training teachers for elementary schools, $45,000; for summer schools, educational meetings, etc., $2,500; for transportation and board of pupils in the elementary schools, $100,000; for the payment of a portion of the salaries of rural-school teachers, $110,000. Remainder of consolidated school fund shall be at disposal of State board of education for the purpose of aiding rural schools and equalizing educational opportunities. Auditor shall draw warrants as directed by State board, but not to exceed amount of school fund. Act No. 64, Apr. 1, 1915.

A (b1). State Boards.

Alabama: Providing for the creation of a commission for the removal of adult illiteracy in Alabama, to be known as "The Alabama Illiteracy Commission," and providing for the duties and powers thereof.

Commission of five members appointed by the governor; no compensation, but actual expenses of members may be paid from any funds which may come into commission's hands. It is the duty of commission to investigate adult illiteracy and to seek to remove such illiteracy. No State appropriation is made for purposes of this act. Act No. 37, p. 80, Feb. 9, 1915.

Alabama: Prohibiting the holding of executive or secret sessions by any body, board, or commission charged with the duty of disbursing any funds belonging to the State, county, or municipality, except where some question involving the character or good name of a woman or man is involved.
No. 278, p. 314, Acts of 1915.

Alabama: See also E (b), Teachers' certificates, general; G (b), State normal schools.

Alaska: To establish a uniform school system in the Territory of Alaska, to create a Territorial board of education and commissioner of education, prescribing their powers and duties, and fixing their compensation, and repealing all acts and parts of acts in conflict herewith. Ch. 64, May 3, 1917.

Arizona: Providing for the revision and compilation of the school laws and the appointment of three commissioners to carry out the provisions of the act.

Commission to report codification of school laws not later than next regular session of legislature. Ch. 40, Mar. 8, 1917.

Arizona: See also B (b), State school lands; N (a), High schools.

Arkansas: Providing for the control of State charitable institutions.

Provides for the appointment of a board of control to consist of three members appointed by the governor. Applies to School for the Blind, Deaf-Mute Institute, Hospital for Nervous Diseases, and Confederate Soldiers' Home.
Act 108, Mar. 4, 1915.

Arkansas: Providing for the creation of the "Arkansas Illiteracy Commission" and prescribing the powers and duties thereof.
Act 59, Feb. 8, 1917.

Arkansas: Amending secs. 3 and 4 of an act approved May 31, 1909, entitled "An act to create the Arkansas history commission and to define its duties."

Outlines duties of said commission. Act 269, Mar. 21, 1917.

Arkansas: See also O (a), Industrial education, general.

California: Empowering the State board of education to order the closing from time to time of educational institutions during the continuance of a state of war. Ch. 192, May 5, 1917.

California: Amending sec. 1521 of the Political Code, fixing the compensation of members of the State board of education and of assistant superintendents of public instruction.

Salary of each assistant superintendent, $4,000.
Ch. 556, May 19, 1917.

California: See also E (b), Teachers' certificates, general; G (b), State normal schools; N (a), High schools.

Connecticut: Amending ch. 133, Public Acts of 1903, relating to the State geological and natural history survey.

Survey commission composed of governor and presidents of Yale University, Wesleyan University, Trinity College, Connecticut Agricultural College, and Connecticut College for Women. Ch. 185, Apr. 29, 1915.

Connecticut: Establishing a State department of labor and factory inspection.
Ch. 255, May 14, 1915.

Connecticut: See also A (b2), State officers; D (c), Sanitation, etc., of schoolhouses; F (c), Teachers' pensions; H (f), Compulsory attendance; O (c), Trade schools.

Delaware: An act to create a commission to study educational conditions and requirements, to harmonize, unify, and revise the school laws, and to evolve an improved and efficient system of public instruction for the State of Delaware, to endow said commission with necessary powers to carry out the purposes of this act, and to appropriate a sum of money for the expenses of said commission. Ch. 186, Apr. 18, 1917.

Delaware: See also A (f), Administrative units—districts, etc.; L (d), Physiology and hygiene; O (a), Industrial education, general.

Florida: See E (b), Teachers' certificates, general; E (e), Recognition of normal and college diplomas; G (c), County and local normal schools; J (b), Medical inspection; O (a), Industrial education, general; T (e), Schools for feeble-minded.

Georgia: See O (a), Industrial education, general.

Hawaii: Creating the board of industrial schools and prescribing its powers and duties.

Creates a Territorial board to have control of industrial and reformatory schools. Board to consist of seven members; six appointed by the governor; judge of juvenile court of first judicial circuit shall be ex officio a member; at least three members shall be women. Act No. 81, Apr. 13, 1915.

Idaho: See C (c), Local taxation; L (a), Course of study.

Illinois: Reorganizing the civil administration of the State government.

The following departments of State government are created: Finance, agriculture, labor, mines and minerals, public works and buildings, public welfare, public health, trade and commerce, and registration and education. Each such department to have a director at its head. In addition to director, the following are created in the department of education and registration: Assistant director, superintendent of registration, and the normal school board, which shall consist of nine officers and the director and the superintendent of public instruction. Following advisory and nonexecutive boards are created in the department of registration and education: Board of natural resources and conservation advisers, composed of seven persons; board of State museum advisers, composed of five persons. No executive and administrative officer of the department shall be affiliated with any college or school of medicine, pharmacy, dentistry, nursing, optometry, embalming, barbering, veterinary medicine, architecture, or structural engineering, either as teacher, officer, or stockholder; nor shall he hold a license or certificate to practice the profession or vocation regulated. No more than two members of the normal school board shall be residents of the same congressional district. Salaries: Director of registration and education, $5,000; assistant director, $3,600; superintendent of registration, $4,200. Normal school board not to devote entire time to duties.

Officer whose office is created by this act shall be appointed by governor, with consent of the senate; term, four years, unless otherwise provided by this act.

Many boards and officers abolished. Among these are the "board of education of the State of Illinois," and the board of trustees of the several State normal schools.

Powers of department of registration and education: (1) To exercise powers and duties of State board of education and boards of trustees of State normal schools; (2) to exercise the rights, powers, and duties of the veterinary examiners; (3) likewise of examiners of horseshoers; (4) of examiners of architects; (5) of examiners of structural engineers; (6) of State board of health relating to practice of medicine; (7) of State board of health relating to embalming; (8) of State board of pharmacy; (9) of board of dental examiners; (10) of board of nurse examiners; (11) of board of optometry; (12) of barber examiners; (13) to promote conservation; (14) to cooperate with departments having duties relating to natural resources; (15) to conduct a natural history survey of the State; (16) to publish reports pertaining to zoology and botany of the State; (17) to maintain a State museum; (18) to supply natural history material to State educational institutions; (19) to investigate entomology of the State; (20) to investigate insects injurious to agriculture, horticulture, etc.; (21) to conduct experiments for the control, etc., of injurious insects; (22) to instruct people as to best methods of protection against insects; (23) to publish articles on insects; (24) to study the geological formation of the State; (25) to publish topographical, geological, and other maps of the State; (26) to publish bulletins giving geological and mineral resources of the State; (27) to cooperate with the United States Geological Survey; (28) to collect data concerning water resources of the State; (29) to determine standards of purity of drinking water; (30) to publish results of investigations of water supply; (31) to make analyses of water; (32) to distribute to educational institutions samples, etc., that may have been collected.

Director to be chairman and State superintendent secretary of normal school board. Powers and duties of such board: (1) To make rules for government of State normal schools; (2) to visit each normal school at least once a year; (3) to employ and remove for cause for each school a president and necessary professors, teachers, etc.; (4) to prescribe course of study and textbooks and apparatus to be used; (5) to issue appropriate diplomas and to confer usual professional degrees; (6) to examine into conditions, etc., of State normal schools; (7) to succeed to and administer trusts and trust property belonging to State normal schools.

Department of registration and education to prescribe rules for licensing and certificating persons to practice specified professions and callings. It may prescribe standards of preliminary education requisite for admission to a school, college, or university, and may require proof of the enforcement of such standards. It may prescribe rules and regulations defining, for the respective professions, trades, and occupations, what shall constitute a school, college, or university, or department of a university. H. B. 279, p. 2, Mar. 7, 1917.

Indiana: See E (b), Teachers' certificates, general; F (c), Teachers' pensions; O (a), Industrial education, general.

Iowa: Relating to the State board of educational examiners.

Increases salary of the secretary of such board to not exceeding $125 per month. School laws, 1915, p. 12.

Iowa: Amending sec. 2628 of the Code, relating to the membership of the board of educational examiners.

Strikes out "principal of the normal school" and inserts "president of the Iowa State Teachers' College" and "president of the Iowa State College of Agriculture and the Mechanic Arts." Ch. 340, Apr. 24, 1917.

Iowa: See also O (a), Industrial education, general; P (c), State universities and colleges; T (b), Schools for the deaf.

Kansas: Relating to the State department of education.

Department consists of State board of education, State superintendent, and officers and assistants herein provided. Salary of State superintendent fixed at $3,000 per annum after January, 1917; superintendent may appoint an assistant superintendent at a salary of $2,000; he may also appoint a chief clerk, a statistical and filing clerk, and two stenographers. Composition of State board of education: State superintendent, chancellor of State university, president of the agricultural college, president of State normal school, and three other persons appointed by the governor. Compensation of appointive members, $5 per day and necessary expenses when attending meetings; other members receive only actual expenses. Term of appointive members, three years, one being appointed each year. Board shall prescribe courses of study for common, graded, and high schools, and may revise the same when desirable; board shall issue State teachers' certificates. Board shall appoint a secretary for a term of four years; said secretary shall be a graduate of a four-year course of study of a university, college, normal school, or like institution; he shall be subject to State superintendent; salary, $2,400 per annum. He shall be inspector of colleges and universities accredited by State board; shall have charge of matters relating to State teachers' certificates; shall perform other duties prescribed by board or State superintendent. Board may fix standards for rural, graded, and high schools and accredit schools maintaining specified standards. Graduate of accredited four-year high school shall be entitled to enter freshman class of State university, agricultural college, or State normal schools. State superintendent may appoint not exceeding four supervisors of schools Ch. 296, Mar. 20, 1915.

Kansas: Providing for the management of State institutions by a State board of administration; providing for their appointment and prescribing their powers and duties.

Three electors appointed by governor with consent of senate; governor a member and chairman; term of appointive members, four years. Members to give entire time to duties; salaries, $3,500 each and expenses. Board to constitute trustees or directors for all educational, benevolent, and penal institutions of the State. To employ a secretary; also a business manager to have control of institutions, purchase supplies, etc. Board to appoint executive officers of State institutions; heads of institutions to appoint minor officers and employees subject to civil-service rules; compensation of employees fixed by board; food supplies furnished to officers of institutions. Heads of institutions to report supplies on hand and needed. Board to advertise for bids on supplies and let contracts. Superintendent or executive officer of institution responsible for State property under his care. Board to furnish governor estimates of appropriations needed. Business manager to have charge of buildings and repair work, letting of contracts, etc. Expenditure for buildings, improvements, etc., shall not exceed appropriation. Board to make rules for advertisement for bids; State architect to compare bids with plans. Board to make rules for institutions. This act to be liberally construed. Institutions under control of board: State university, State agricultural college, Emporia Normal School, School for the Blind, School for the Deaf, Fort Hays Normal School, Pittsburgh Manual Training School, other State educational institutions, Industrial School for Girls, Industrial School for Boys, Orphans' Home, other benevolent institutions, State penitentiary, State Industrial Reformatory, other penal and correctional institutions. Board authorized to bring suits, etc. State accountant to install uniform system of accounting. Boards of directors of the several educational, benevolent, penal, and correctional institutions are abolished and the State board of administration succeeds to their powers and duties. Ch. 297, Feb. 27, 1917.

Kansas: See also E (b), Teachers' certificates, general; H (g), Child labor; K (c), Uniform textbooks; N (a), High schools.

Kentucky: An act for the benefit of the Kentucky illiteracy commission, appropriating money thereto, and providing a census of adult illiterates.

The sum of $5,000 appropriated annually for two years.

Ch. 73, Mar. 24, 1916.

Kentucky: See also A (c1), County boards.

Louisiana: See A (a), Administration and supervision, general; T (b), Schools for the deaf.

Maine: See O (a), Industrial education, general.

Maryland: An act to continue in existence the educational survey commission created by ch. 844 of the Acts of 1914 in order that said commission, in conformity with said act, may continue its survey so as to include the higher educational institutions of the State; to endow said commission with all the necessary power and authority to make such a survey, and to appropriate a sum of money for the expenses of said commission.

Ch. 376, Apr. 11, 1916.

Maryland: See also A (a), Administration and supervision, general.

Massachusetts: See M (e), University extension—public lectures; O (a), Industrial education, general; O (b), Agricultural schools; U (e), Schools for dependents and delinquents.

Michigan: Amending sec. 1826 of the Compiled Laws of 1897, as amended by Act No. 125, Public Acts of 1907, relating to the State board of education.

Reduces from two to one the required number of annual meetings held for the purpose of examining teachers. Act No. 13, Mar. 16, 1915.

Michigan: Creating a commission of inquiry to make investigations and submit reports and legislative recommendations relative to child welfare; providing for the appointment of the members of said commission and prescribing their powers and duties; and providing for the cooperation of State, city, and county public-relief and certain other bodies with such commission.

Act No. 293, May 10, 1917.

Michigan: See also O (a), Industrial education, general

Minnesota: See B (b), State school lands; B (e), State aid for elementary education; F (c), Teachers' pensions; L (i), Manual and industrial education; T (b), Schools for the deaf.

Mississippi: Providing for the creation of a commission for the removal of adult illiteracy in Mississippi, to be known as "the Mississippi illiteracy commission," and prescribing the dutes and powers thereof.
Ch. 110, Mar. 21, 1916.

Mississippi: A concurrent resolution creating an educational commission to prepare a code of school laws and to report the same to the legislature in 1918.
Ch. 603, Apr. 6, 1916.

Mississippi: See also G (d), Teachers' institutes and summer schools.

Missouri: See O (a), Industrial education, general.

Montana: See F (c), Teachers' pensions; O (a), Industrial education, general.

Nebraska: See O (a), Industrial education, general.

Nevada: Providing for a State educational survey by an unpaid commission.
Ch. 246, Mar. 25, 1915.

Nevada: See also A (b2), State officers; D (b), State aid; approval of plans; E (b), Teachers' certificates, general; F (c), Teachers' pensions; O (a) Industrial education, general.

New Hampshire: Providing for the management and control of State institutions.

Creates a board of trustees for the management of the State hospital, the school for feeble-minded children, the industrial school, the State sanatorium for consumptives, and the State prison. Board to consist of 10 members appointed by the governor; term, five years, two being appointed each year.
Ch. 176, Apr. 21, 1915.

New Hampshire: See O (a), Industrial education, general.

New Jersey: See E (b), Teachers' certificates, general; F (a), Teachers' contracts, duties, etc.; F (c), Teachers' pensions. See also G (b), State normal schools; L (c), Physical education; O (a), Industrial education, general; R (b), Educational corporations.

New Mexico: Relating to the State board of education.

Term of office of five appointive members of board shall be five years; board shall meet four times a year, and special meetings may be held; governor is president. Appointive members shall receive 5 cents a mile each way and $5 per day for attending meetings. Ch. 82, Mar. 18, 1915.

New Mexico: See also A (c1), County boards; E (b), Teachers' certificates, general; G (b), State normal schools.

New York: Amending the education law, in relation to the election of regents of the University of the State of New York.

Provides for the election of regents on joint ballot of the two houses of the legislature. (Was "in the manner provided by law for the election of senators in Congress.") Ch. 3, Feb. 9, 1915.

New York: Amending the education law relative to the supervision of professions and the licensing of persons to practice such professions.

Gives to regents of the University of the State of New York supervision over chiropody and "certified shorthand reporters, architects, and members of any other profession which may hereafter come under the supervision of the board of regents." Ch. 357, May 4, 1917.

New York: See also L (c), Physical education; O (a), Industrial education, general.

North Carolina: Creating an educational commission to study the educational conditions of the State and make recommendations as to needed changes in the school laws. Ch. 197, Mar. 6, 1917.

North Carolina: Promoting the elimination of illiteracy in the State.

Appropriates $25,000 annually for the instruction of illiterate adults. Authorizes the State board of education to duplicate funds provided by local communities for the instruction of illiterate persons over 14 years of age for a term of not less than one month. Ch. 224, Mar. 6, 1917.

North Carolina: See also A (f), Administrative units—districts, etc.; B (b), State school lands; B (e), State aid for elementary education; E (b), Teachers' certificates, general; L (j), Agriculture.

North Dakota: Creating a board of regents for the State university, the State agricultural college, the normal schools, the School of Science, the Normal and Industrial School, the School of Forestry, and such State educational institutions as may hereafter be established; prescribing its powers and duties; providing for the management and control of the State educational institutions; providing an appropriation to carry out the purposes of this act; and repealing all acts or parts of acts in conflict or inconsistent herewith.

Board to consist of five members appointed by governor with consent of senate; term, six years, one or two as case requires being appointed every two years; not more than two to be appointed from any one congressional district and not more than one from any county. Board may appoint a secretary at a salary of not exceeding $2,500 per annum. Governor may remove any member for cause and may fill a vacancy until next session of the legislature. Each member shall take official oath and give bond for $10,000. Compensation, $7 per day each and necessary expenses when attending meetings or performing official duties. Such board shall succeed to powers and duties of normal board of control and the boards of trustees of the several institutions named in this act. After organization board shall conduct a survey of institutions under its control, and upon the completion of such survey shall appoint a commissioner of education from without the State whose duty shall be to assist the board in correlating the work of the said institutions. Salary of commissioner, not exceeding $5,000. Board shall prepare a budget for institutions and submit the same to governor and legislature. President of each institution shall at least once a year submit a budget to regents. Board shall install a uniform system of accounting. Board shall have an office at the capital with necessary supplies and clerical force. Ch. 237, Mar. 4, 1915.

Ohio: See O (a), Industrial education, general.

Oklahoma: See E (e), Recognition of diplomas; L (c), Physical education. O (a), Industrial education, general; R (b), Educational corporations.

Oregon: See N (a), High schools.

Pennsylvania: Creating the bureau of vocational education of the department of public instruction; creating the divisions of the same; providing for the appointment of its officers and other employees by the superintendent of public instruction; defining the duties of the same, and fixing the compensation of its employees.

Bureau created with two divisions, agricultural and industrial, under direction of State superintendent. Agricultural division shall consist of director of agricultural education, two supervisors of such education, and three stenographers. Industrial division shall consist of director of industrial education, two supervisors of such education, one supervisor of drawing, and three stenographers. Act. No. 162, May 6, 1915.

Pennsylvania: Authorizing the State board of education to inquire into, and report to the governor upon advisability and desirability of the erection at Harrisburg, by the State, of a suitable building for the use of educational departments and interests of the State government, and authorizing said bureau to expend not exceeding $5,000 for plans for said building.

No. 344, June 3, 1915.

Pennsylvania: See also F (c), Teachers' pensions; H (g), Child labor; O (a), Industrial education, general; T (c), Schools for the blind.

Rhode Island: See L (c), Physical education; S (a), Public libraries.

South Carolina: Establishing a State board of charities and corrections.

Board to consist of five members appointed by the governor; term, five years, one appointed each year. Board's duties shall be visitorial and advisory, without administrative or executive powers. Board shall once a year or oftener visit, inspect, and report upon State, county, municipal, and private institutions which are of an eleemosynary, charitable, correctional, or reformatory character or which are for the care, custody, or training of the defective, dependent, delinquent, or criminal classes, except that the hospitals for the insane, the penitentiary, and reformatories shall be visited by at least two members as often as once in six months; it shall also inspect and report upon chartered institutions or associations engaged in the care and protection of homeless, dependent, defective, and delinquent children or adults.
Act No. 100, Feb. 20, 1915.

South Carolina: Amending sec. 1708, Vol. I, Code of 1912, as amended by Act No. 247, Acts of 1914, relating to the powers of the State board of education.

Restores to the State board of education the authority to grant State teachers' certificates and to revoke the same for cause. Act No. 130, Mar. 11, 1915.

South Carolina: See also L (j), Agriculture; N (a), High schools; O (a), Industrial education, general.

South Dakota: Providing for a State educational survey and appropriating money therefor. Ch. 226, Mar. 7, 1917.

South Dakota: See also O (a), Industrial education, general.

Tennessee: An act to create a State board of control to manage and govern the penal, reformatory, and charitable institutions controlled and operated by the State; to provide for the appointment of said board and other officials, to define their powers and duties, and fix their compensation; and to provide ways and means for the enforcement of this act.

Provides for the appointment of three qualified electors, one from each grand division of the State; governor to appoint with advice of senate; term of members, six years, one being appointed every two years; salary of president, $4,000; salary of each of other two members, $3,600; salary of secretary, $2,000 per annum. Board given full power to manage and govern the following institutions: School for the blind, school for deaf and dumb, central hospital for the insane, eastern hospital for the insane, western hospital for the insane, Tennessee industrial school, reformatory for boys, State penitentiary, Brushy Mountain penitentiary. Ch. 20, Mar. 12, 1915.

Tennessee: An act to reorganize the State board of education to provide for the appointment of members of State board, to fix their terms of office, to provide for their expenses, to prescribe their duties, and to empower said board of education to elect the State superintendent of public instruction, fix his salary and term of office.

Said board to consist of nine members appointed by the governor, three members from each of the three grand divisions of the State; State superintendent shall be secretary and executive officer of the board. Term of members, six years, three appointed every two years. Members shall serve without compensation, but shall be allowed their necessary traveling expenses, and a member may be allowed $5 a day for committee work. In addition to other duties prescribed by law, said board shall fix the salary of the State superintendent, and at the expiration of term of present incumbent, shall elect his successor and fix his term. Ch. 116, May 15, 1915.

Tennessee: Amending ch. 116, acts of 1915, providing for the reorganization of the State board of education.

Minority political party shall have at least three members on said board. Board members allowed $5 per day for attending meetings and for necessary committee work. Board to elect State superintendent for term of two years, his salary to be $3,000 per annum. Time fixed for regular meetings of the board. Ch. 51, Mar. 30, 1917.

Tennessee: Instructing the governor to appoint a committee to codify the school laws of the State and report the same to the next general assembly.
S. J. R. No, 79, p. 665, May 15, 1915.

Tennessee: See also E (b), Teachers' certificates, general; K (b), Free textbooks; K (c), Uniformity of textbooks; N (a), High schools; O (a), Industrial education, general; T (c) Schools for the blind.

Texas: See A (cl), County boards; E (d), Validity, etc., of certificates; S (a), Libraries, general.

Utah: Amending sec. 1763, Compiled Laws of 1907, as amended by ch. 67, acts of 1911, relating to the State board of education.

Enlarges said board from five to nine members. Now consists of State superintendent, president of university, president of State agricultural college, and six (was two) members appointed by the governor. Appointive members appointed for terms of six years, two each biennium.
Ch. 109, Mar. 22, 1915.

Utah: Creating an educational code commission, defining its duties, and providing for its necessary expenses.

Provides for a commission to consist of State superintendent attorney general, and three other persons appointed by the governor. Said commission to investigate educational conditions and report to governor not later than September 1, 1916; report to embody recommendations in the form of a bill to be introduced in the legislature. Ch. 20, Mar. 10, 1915.

Utah: Creating a commission to investigate provisions for the mentally deficient and making an appropriation for its expenses. Ch. 40, Mar. 15, 1915.

Utah: See also B (e), State aid for elementary education; O (a), Industrial education, general.

Vermont: Establishing a board of charities and probation, amending certain sections relating to probation and certain sections of the juvenile court act, and abolishing the probation commission. No. 244, Apr. 11, 1917.

Vermont: See also A (a), Administration and supervision, general; N (a), High schools; O (a) Industrial education, general; O (b) Agricultural schools.

Virginia: Amending sec. 1433 of the Code, as amended, relating to the powers and duties of the State board of education.

Retains provision that State board of education shall adopt textbooks for public schools, but strikes out provisions for contract with publishers, publishers' bonds, etc. Ch. 500, Mar. 23, 1916.

Virginia: See also B (c), Permanent State school funds; G (b), State normal schools.

Washington: Creating a commission to make an educational survey of the State, defining its powers and duties, appointing the members thereof, and making an appropriation therefor.

Names three senators and three members of the house of representatives to serve as such commission; compensation, $5 per day each. To make a survey of State university, agricultural college, State normal schools, and public elementary and high schools of the State. Ch. 143, Mar. 18, 1915.

Washington: See also E (b), Teachers' certificates, general; E (e), Recognition of normal and college diplomas.

West Virginia: See E (b), Teachers' certificates, general; G (c), County and local normal schools; O (a), Industrial education, general; U (e), Schools for dependents and delinquents.

Wisconsin: Creating secs. 376–50 and 172–66 of the statutes, creating a State board of education, conferring powers and defining the duties of such board and making an appropriation.

State board of education to consist of five members. Composition: Governor, secretary of State, and State superintendent, ex officio, and one member ap-

pointed by regents of State university and one appointed by regents of the normal schools; term of appointive members, two years. Compensation, $8 per day each for not exceeding 60 days in a year, and actual expenses, but no member receiving salary from the State or State institution shall receive compensation. Superintendent shall be president; majority a quorum. Board may appoint and fix compensation of a secretary, necessary clerks, etc. Office at the capitol. Duties: To have exclusive charge and management of all financial affairs of the educational activities of the State; to examine and study the "business methods and management of and the expenditure of public funds" for educational purposes. It shall have power to institute and maintain an adequate and uniform accounting system. May require data and information from superintendents and other officers of public schools and institutions. Shall cause accounts of schools and institutions to be audited. Said board shall report to each session of the legislature, with recommendations and estimates of funds needed for educational purposes. Persons interested in any school whose affairs are being considered shall be entitled to a hearing; heads of schools and institutions shall furnish information to board. The sum of $15,000 appropriated for carrying out duties and functions of board.
Ch. 497, Aug. 3. 1915.

Wisconsin: Amending secs. 376–50, Wisconsin Statutes, relating to the State board of education.

Said board reorganized to consist of nine members as follows: Governor. State superintendent, one member appointed for two years by regents of university, one member appointed for two years by regents of normal schools, and five members (one a woman) appointed by governor with consent of Senate. Term of five appointed by governor, five years, one appointed each year. Board to elect own president. Ch. 478, June 22, 1917.

Wisconsin: See also G (b), State normal schools; O (a), Industrial education, general.

Wyoming: Authorizing the appointment of a school code committee, defining its powers and duties, and making an appropriation therefor.

Governor directed to appoint committee of five members to serve for two years Said committee to investigate educational conditions and report to governor and next session of the legislature recommending a revised code of school laws. Members to receive only necessary expenses.
Ch. 157, Mar. 5, 1915.

Wyoming: Establishing a State department of education.

General supervision of public schools is vested in such department, at the head of which shall be the State board of education with the commissioner of education as its executive officer. This act not to limit the trustees of the State university. State board of education to consist of superintendent of public instruction, ex officio, and six members appointed by the governor; term of appointive members, six years, two being appointed every two years. Commissioner of education appointed by the board. Said board to have, through the commissioner, general control and supervision of the public schools; to fix standards for course of study and standardize elementary and high schools; to make rules for the certification of teachers; to provide for taking the annual school census and revise reports from school officers; to make biennial reports; to conduct educational investigations; to have general oversight of vocational or other special schools receiving State aid; to advise the trustees of the university in regard to the normal department thereof; to assume powers and duties of State board of examiners. Qualifications, powers, and duties, etc., of commissioner of education are prescribed. Certification division created; commissioner to be chief of said division; issuance of teachers' certificates regulated. Ch. 120, Feb. 21, 1917.

Wyoming: See also O (a), Industrial education, general.

A (b2). State Officers.

Alabama: See B (b), State school lands; D (b), State aid—approval of plans; H (f), Compulsory attendance; M (g), Private and endowed schools.

Alaska: See A (b1), State boards.

Arizona: See A (c2), County officers.

Arkansas: See G (d), Teachers' institutes and summer schools.

California: See A (b1), State boards; O (d), Continuation schools.

Colorado: Designating the head professor of the department of chemistry at the University of Colorado as State chemist. Ch. 150, Mar. 8, 1915.

Connecticut: Amending sec. 2111 of the General Statutes, as amended by ch. 217, Acts of 1909, relating to the State board of education.

Authorizes said board to appoint an assistant secretary. Ch. 351, May 16, 1917.

Delaware: Amending ch. 106, Laws of 1913, relating to the State commissioner of education.

Increases commissioner's salary from $2,000 to $3,000 per annum so long as present incumbent remains in office. Ch. 159, Mar. 12, 1915.

Delaware: Amending ch. 159, Laws of 1915, relating to the salary of State commissioner of education.

Strikes out provision that salary of $3,000 shall only be paid to incumbent at time of passage of act in 1915. Ch. 174, Mar. 20, 1917.

Delaware: Authorizing the commissioner of education to have printed in pamphlet form 2,000 copies of the school laws of the State. Ch. 287, Apr. 2, 1917.

Delaware: See also B (e), State aid for elementary education; G (d), Teachers' institutes and summer schools.

Florida: See G (d), Teachers' institutes and summer schools.

Hawaii: Amending sec. 254, Revised Laws of 1915, relating to commissioner of education.

No person in holy orders or minister of religion shall be eligible to office of commissioner. Women eligible, but not more than three shall be commissioners at the same time. Act No. 51, Apr. 6, 1915.

Idaho: Proposing an amendment to sec. 1, art. 4, of the State constitution, abolishing the office of State superintendent of public instruction. S. J. R. No. 5, Mar. 10, 1917.

Illinois: See A (b1), State boards; D (c), Sanitation, etc., of schoolhouses; K (c), Uniformity of text books; N (a), High schools.

Indiana: See D (c), Sanitation, etc., of schoolhouses; E (b), Teachers' certificates, general; F (c), Teachers' pensions.

Iowa: Making the office of State superintendent of public instruction elective; repealing sec. 2627a, Supplement to the Code, 1913, and providing for the filling of said office until the next general election.

Repealed section providing for the appointment of said officer by the governor. Now to be elected by vote of the people at general election of 1918 and every four years thereafter. Ch. 318, Apr. 23, 1917.

Kansas: See A (b1), State boards.

Kentucky: Repealing sec. 4385, Carroll's Kentucky Statutes, 1915, and reenacting the same, so as to give the State superintendent of public instruction authority to appoint additional clerks and stenographers for the State department of education, and providing for the payment of said appointees out of the State school fund. Ch. 123, 1916. (Neither approved nor disapproved by the governor.)

Kentucky: See also A (c1), County boards.

Louisiana: See A (a), Administration and supervision, general.

Maine: Amending sec. 20, ch. 117, Revised Statutes of 1916, increasing from $1,800 to $2,000 the salary of the chief clerk in the office of the State superintendent of public schools. Ch. 179, Apr. 3, 1917.

Maine: See also A (b3), State inspection of schools; A (d), District boards and officers; D (b), State aid; approval of plans; E (b), Teachers' certificates, general; F (a), Teachers' contracts, duties, etc.; G (b), State normal schools; L (a), Course of study; M (b), Kindergartens; M (c), Evening schools.

Maryland: See A (a), Administration and supervision, general.

Michigan: Amending sec. 5642, Compiled Laws 1915, relating to superintendent of public instruction.

Authorizes superintendent to appoint a deputy at salary of $2,500 per annum; also two assistant superintendents at salary of $2,100 each.
Act No. 22, Mar. 29, 1917.

Michigan: See also E (c), Teachers' certificates, special; F (c), Teachers' pensions; N (a), High schools; O (a), Industrial education, general; U (e), Schools for dependents and delinquents.

Minnesota: See B (e), State aid for elementary education; F (c), Teachers' pensions; H (e), Consolidation of districts, etc.; L (i), Manual and industrial education.

Montana: See F (c), Teachers' pensions; G (c), County and local normal schools.

Nebraska: Relating to the reports of State officers.

Required biennial reports of State officers shall be printed and ready for distribution on the first day of the session of the legislature. State superintendent of public instruction shall have 500 copies printed. Ch. 100, Mar. 16, 1915.

Nebraska: Amending secs. 2209, 2210, and 2211, Revised Statutes, 1913, providing for the nonpartisan nomination and election of the State superintendent of public instruction, county superintendents of schools, and regents of the State University. Ch. 37, Apr. 24, 1917.

Nebraska: See also N (a), High schools.

Nevada: Amending secs. 6 and 9, ch. 133, Acts of 1911, relating to the powers and duties of the State superintendent of public instruction and to deputy superintendents.

Strikes out provision for the nomination of deputy superintendents of public instruction by State superintendent and leaves their selection entirely in the hands of the State board of education. Ch. 287, Mar. 29, 1915.

Nevada: See also C (c), Local taxation; D (c), Sanitation, etc., of schoolhouses; D (e), United States flag in school; F (a), Teachers' contracts, duties, etc.; F (c), Teachers' pensions; M (c), Evening schools.

New Hampshire: See F (a), Teachers' contracts, duties, etc.; F (c), Teachers' pensions; H (f), Compulsory attendance; N (a), High schools; O (a), Industrial education, general.

New Jersey: Amending a supplement (1911) to an act entitled "An act to establish a thorough and efficient system of free public schools," etc., approved Oct. 19, 1903, relating to the State board of education.

Authorizes said board to fix salaries of State inspector of buildings and State inspector of school accounts (under old law salary of each was not to exceed $2,000 per annum.) Ch. 67, Mar. 15, 1916.

New Jersey: See also F (c), Teachers' pensions; L (c), Physical education; M (c), Evening schools; O (a), Industrial education, general.

New Mexico: See B (d), State taxation for school purposes; E (b), Teachers' certificates, general; G (b), State normal schools; N (a), High schools.

New York: See C (b), Local bonds and indebtedness; O (b), Agricultural schools; U (e), Schools for dependents and delinquents.

North Carolina: See E (b), Teachers' certificates, general; O (a), Industrial education, general.

North Dakota: See A (b1), State boards; B (b), State school lands.

Ohio: See E (b), Teachers' certificates, general; L (j), Agriculture; O (a), Industrial education, general.

Oklahoma: Repealing ch. 131, Acts of 1911, empowering the State superintendent to employ a State inspector of schools. Ch. 14, Feb. 9, 1915.

Oklahoma: See also A (d), District boards and officers; E (e), Recognition of normal and college diplomas.

Oregon: Amending subdivision 5 of sec. 3946 of Lord's Oregon Laws so that the secretary of state shall not be required to furnish printing for the superintendent of public instruction. Ch. 43, Feb. 9, 1915.

Pennsylvania: Increasing from $2,000 to $3,000 the annual salary of deputy superintendents of public instruction. Act No. 98, Apr. 23, 1915.

Pennsylvania: See also A (b1), State boards; F (c), Teachers' pensions; H (g), Child labor.

Porto Rico: Repealing certain obsolete sections of the codified school law. No. 25, Apr. 12, 1917.

Rhode Island: See H (e), Consolidation of districts, etc.; H (g), Child labor.

South Dakota: Providing for a fixed expense allowance to certain State officers, including superintendent of public instruction. Ch. 365, Feb. 19, 1917.

South Dakota: See also E (b), Teachers' certificates, general; E (d), Indorsement, etc., of certificates; F (a), Teachers' contracts, duties, etc.; O (a), Industrial education, general.

Tennessee: See A (b1), State boards; E (b), Teachers' certificates, general; K (c), Uniformity of textbooks.

Texas: See A (c1), County boards; A (d), District boards and officers; E (d), Validity, etc., of certificates.

Utah: See A (b1), State boards.

Vermont: Creating the office of director of State institutions.

Said director appointed by governor with consent of senate. Among other institutions, Vermont Industrial School and Vermont State School for Feebleminded Children pass under control of said director. No. 115, Mar. 2, 1917.

Vermont: See also A (a), Administration and supervision, general.

Washington: See E (e), Recognition of normal and college diplomas.

West Virginia: See E (b), Teachers' certificates, general.

Wisconsin: See A (b1), State boards; A (c1), County boards; E (b), Teachers' certificates, general; K (c), Uniform textbooks; N (a), High schools; O (a), Industrial education, general.

Wyoming: Fixing the salary of the deputy State superintendent of public instruction.

Said salary fixed at $2,100 per annum. Ch. 23, Feb. 13, 1917.

Wyoming: See also A (b1), State boards; G (d), Teachers' institutes and summer schools; J (b), Medical inspection.

A (b3). State Inspection of Schools.

Maine: Providing for professional supervision of schools in remotely situated plantations.

When state superintendent shall find that any plantation is so situated that it is impracticable to form a superintendence union, he may place at the service of the school committee of such plantation the general agent for the schooling of children in unorganized townships; for such service treasurer of plantation shall pay annually to State $25 for each school of said plantation.

Ch. 179, Mar. 24, 1915.

Maine: See also N (a), High schools.

Oklahoma: See A (b2), State officers.

Vermont: See A (a), Administration and supervision, general.

A (c1). County Boards.

Alabama: Providing for a county board of education, prescribing the method of election of members thereof, defining the powers and duties of the board and requiring the boards of education in incorporated cities and towns to make an enumeration of children of school age.

Public schools of each county, except in incorporated cities and towns, shall be under direction of a county board of education composed of five members elected by the qualified electors of the county; term, six years, two or one as the case requires being elected every two years. County superintendent shall be secretary and executive officer of such board. County board shall have entire control of public schools of county, unless otherwise provided by law; shall make rules and regulations for the government of the schools; may acquire, by condemnation proceedings if necessary, hold and convey title to real and personal property for school purposes, except where otherwise provided; may sue and contract. Additional duties: (1) To select a county superintendent of schools, prescribe his duties in addition to those prescribed by law, and fix his compensation; (2) to elect a county treasurer of school funds; (3) to fill until next general election vacancies in its own membership; (4) to select on nomination of county superintendent, assistant superintendents, supervisors, and necessary office force; (5) to select teachers upon nomination of county superintendent and fix their salaries, erect, repair, and furnish schoolhouses, fix wages of employees, determine incidental expenses, and have control of public school funds; (6) to fix boundaries of school districts and locate schools; (7) to consolidate schools and provide for the transportation of pupils; (8 to authorize a child of one county to attend school in another county by agreement with board of other county and to agree with city boards for the transfer of pupils; (9) to control public school funds as provided by law; (10) to appoint for each school not exceeding three persons to serve as trustee or trustees who shall care for school property and look after the interests of the school; (11) to enforce the compulsory attendance law; (12) to determine appeals in cases of pupils suspended by teachers; (13) to dismiss for cause county superintendent, assistant superintendents, and teachers; (14) to cause to be taken a census of persons between 7 and 21 years of age. Members shall receive actual traveling and hotel expenses when attending meetings, but expenses for not exceeding 12 meetings shall be paid in one year.

Act No. 220, p. 281, Aug. 16, 1915.

Alabama: See also A (b1), State boards; A (d), District boards and officers; D (b), State aid—approval of plans; H (f), Compulsory attendance.

California: See E (b), Teachers' certificates, general; L (a), Course of Study.

Delaware: See A (f), Administrative units—districts, etc.

Florida: Providing for abolishing the office of county treasurer; providing for the creation and establishment of county depositories in and for the several counties; providing for the receiving, keeping, care or custody, and paying out of all county school funds and of all funds under the care and control of boards of county commissioners, and providing for the security of such funds.

Ch. 6932 (No. 126), June 3, 1915.

Florida: See also G (c), County and local normal schools; H (f), Compulsory attendance; L (i), Manual and industrial education.

Georgia: See H (f), Compulsory attendance.

Iowa: See H (e), Consolidation of districts, etc.

Kansas: See E (b), Teachers' certificates, general.

Kentucky: Repealing ch. 113, Kentucky Statutes for 1915, being secs. 4363 to 4535h, inclusive, except secs. 4421a and 4421b and secs. 4527 to 4535c, inclusive, and to reenact the same chapter with the articles and sections corrected, rearranged, simplified, and the repealed sections and parts of sections omitted, and fixing the time of year at which textbook adoption shall be made.

Purpose of the act:

"Whereas chapter 113 of the Kentucky statutes, Carroll's edition, 1915, the same being sections 4363 to 4535h, inclusive, relates to common schools; and

"Whereas said chapter 113 of the statutes consists of the act of July 6, 1893, with the amendments to the same, which act and amendments were based upon the fundamental fact that the local district was the unit of school administration, and of the act of March 24, 1908, with amendments to the same, which act and amendments are based on the fact that the county is the unit of school administration for many purposes; and

"Whereas the act of March 24, 1908, with amendments thereto have repealed some sections and parts of sections of the act of July 6, 1893, and its amendments; and

"Whereas much confusion has arisen in the administration of the school laws throughout the State because of the uncertainty arising from the facts enumerated; and

"Whereas it is impracticable to secure a decision of the court of appeals upon every one of the many questions arising in the effort to administer the schools under the two sets of laws differing in their fundamental conception: Therefore

"Be it enacted," etc.

County made the unit of school administration, except that cities, towns, and graded-school districts levying a special school tax are exempt from county system. County to be divided into four, six, or eight "educational divisions," and such divisions divided into subdistricts as formerly. County board of education remains the same; that is, composed of chairmen of "educational-division" boards, which boards are composed of trustees of subdistricts. One trustee elected in place of three under old law. Trustees of subdistricts no longer to elect teachers; now elected by division board on nomination of subdistrict trustee. County, independent district, and subdistrict tax limits remain the same. County board of education has general administration of schools outside of exempted districts. A "building school commission" is provided for; to be appointed by county judge on petition of 250 householders; four members. Subject to county board of education, building commission has charge of schoolhouse construction of the county outside of exempted districts.

The State board of education remains unchanged, but the powers and duties of the State superintendent are somewhat extended. He is constituted "special State inspector and examiner" of schools and may employ two assistants for such purpose. Minor changes are made in the provisions relating to county superintendents; one change will have the effect of raising salaries. A more important change authorizes him to condemn unfit schoolhouses.

Ch. 24, Mar. 18, 1916.

Kentucky: See also L (j), Agriculture.

Louisiana: Authorizing the governor to fill vacancies in parish [county] boards of education. Act No. 236, July 6, 1916.

Louisiana: See also A (a), Administration and supervision, general; H (f), Compulsory attendance.

Maryland: See A (a), Administration and supervision, general.

Michigan: See E (b), Teachers' certificates, general.

Nebraska: See A (f), Administrative units—districts, etc.

Nevada: See N (a), High schools.

New Mexico: Creating county boards of education, prescribing their powers and duties, and amending and repealing certain school laws for the purpose of conforming to the system herein adopted.

County board of education to consist of county superintendent and four members appointed by district judge; term of appointive members, four years, two appointed every two years. Incorporated cities, towns, and villages constitute municipal districts; all other districts are rural. County board of education to have control of all rural schools and districts. Rural school moneys in county treasuries to be expended under supervision of county board of education. Teachers employed by district board with approval of county board. Rural districts may be changed by county board under certain restrictions. County superintendent to have supervision over all schools except those in cities and except as otherwise provided by law. County superintendent and county board to apportion State and county funds to districts on basis of school census. District boards may issue warrants, but not in excess of district levy for one year. District bonds issued under supervision of county board. When district without schoolhouse fails to provide the same, county board may withhold not exceeding one-fifth of district's share of distributive school fund each year until sufficient money is accumulated to build a schoolhouse in such district. State aid provided for weak districts. Poll tax of $1 provided for each district. Principals and teachers to report to county superintendent violations of compulsory-attendance law. High schools in municipal district are under control of municipal board; in rural districts under county board. County high school maintained by entire county, including municipal districts; more than one county high school may be established.

After January 1, 1921, three members of State board of education shall be appointed for four years and two for two years; appointed by governor, with consent of senate; thereafter, term, four years, two or three, as case requires, being appointed every two years. Ch. 105, Mar. 13, 1917.

North Carolina: Providing for the nomination and election of county boards of education.

In all counties wherein the county board of education has heretofore been elected by the legislature, candidates for membership in the county board of education shall be nominated at the party primaries or conventions. Next legislature shall elect requisite number for each such county from nominations so made. Vacancy in board filled by remaining members until next session of the legislature. Ch. 74, Feb. 26, 1917.

North Carolina: See also A (f), Administrative units—districts, etc.; B (e), State aid for elementary education; C (c), Local taxation; S (a), Libraries, general.

Ohio: See A (c2), County officers.

Oregon: Amending ch. 79, Acts of 1911, relating to the county educational board, by adding thereto sec. 8, providing for the dissolution and for the reestablishment of said board.

Provides manner of dissolution and of reestablishment of board, which is authorized to divide county into supervisory districts and to provide supervision therefor. Whenever a majority of the directors of the several school districts of any county affected by said chapter 79, exclusive of any school district therein provides for school supervision, shall petition the county educational board in writing asking that said county be exempted from the provisions of said chapter, said board shall thereupon dismiss all supervisors employed by them, whereupon county superintendent shall dissolve said county educational board. Such county may again be subject to the provisions of said chapter by petition of a majority of said directors. Ch. 80, Feb. 15, 1915.

Oregon: See also C (c), Local taxation.

South Carolina: See H (f), Compulsory attendance; L (j), Agriculture; S (a), Public libraries.

Tennessee: To extend to county boards of education and county high-school boards the right of eminent domain and to take and use private property for public school purposes, and to provide for a board of appraisers and to define their duties. Ch. 149, May 17, 1915.

Tennessee: See also L (a), Course of study; N (a), High schools.

Texas: Amending ch. 26, Acts of 1911, providing for the establishment of public high schools and for instruction in agriculture, domestic economy, and manual training in said high schools and in certain high schools already established.

Amends law generally. Management and control of public schools in each county now vested in five county school trustees elected one at large by the qualified voters of common-school districts and one from each commissioner's precinct by the qualified voters of such precinct; term, two years, two or three as the case requires being elected each year. Under regulations prescribed by the State superintendent, county school trustees shall classify schools as elementary schools and high schools. In classifying schools and in establishing high schools, said trustees shall advise with county superintendent and with district trustees at interest. Said trustees shall not so classify schools as to deprive any child of school age of instruction in the grade to which it belongs in the public school; no such child shall be required to walk farther than 3 miles to school; if school is located farther than 3 miles from such child's home, transportation shall be furnished at the expense of the district. County school trustees and county superintendent shall prescribe a course of study for the public schools, conforming to law and to the requirements of the State superintendent. Said trustees shall annually in August or September call a meeting of district trustees to consider matters pertaining to the establishment of high schools, teaching high-school subjects, classification and location of schools, conduct and maintenance of schools, terms thereof, etc., and county trutees shall be governed in their action by the result of such deliberation; other such meetings may be called. On petition of a majority of the qualified voters of each common-school district affected, county school trustees may consolidate two or more common-school districts. County superintendent shall be secretary of the county school trustees and shall keep a "record of school districts" and other records. State superintendent shall prepare and furnish forms. District court shall have general supervisory control over the actions of county board in creating, changing, and modifying school districts. State department shall rank high schools as first class, second class, and third class. First class: Four years above seventh grade, at least two high-school teachers holding State first-grade certificates or higher, at least eight months' term, and may include seven elementary grades. Third class: Same as first, except that only three years of high-school work are required. Third class: Same as first, except that a two-year course, one teacher and seven months' term are required. Agriculture, domestic economy, and manual training are required in all high schools provided for herein and located outside of incorporated cities and towns. County school trustees shall be a body corporate. Said trustees and county superintendent shall apportion as prescribed by law State and county funds to districts having more than 150 "scholastics." Trustees shall hold quarterly meetings and may hold other meetings. Compensation, $3 per day each, but not to exceed $36 per annum. Vacancies filled by remaining trustees. Appeals from county superintendent shall be to county trustees, thence to State superintendent, thence to State board of education. Ch. 36, Mar. 5, 1915.

Texas: See also A (f), Administrative units—districts, etc.

Utah: Amending secs. 1891X, 1891X2, and 1891X27, Compiled Laws of 1907, as amended by ch. 96, Acts of 1913, also amending sec. 1891X29, Compiled Laws of 1907, relating to the organization of county school districts of the first class, also repealing certain sections of the Compiled Laws of 1907 and ch. 31, Acts of 1911.

Extends to all counties, except those having 5,000 school population or more and divided into two or more high-school districts, the provisions of the act which makes the county the unit of school administration. (Act formerly applied only to counties having 2,000 or more census children). Fixes at five the number of members of board of education of such county school district (was 5 to 9). Tax rate fixed at following: County district of $10,000,000 or more of

valuation, not over 10 mills on the dollar; $8,000,000 to $10,000,000, not over 11 mills; $5,000,000 to $8,000,000, not over 12½ mills; less than $5,000,000, not over 13½ mills. (Rates were 10, 12, 13½ and 15 mills, respectively.) The special tax for buildings and sites shall not exceed 1 per cent (was 2 per cent) of property valuation. Repealed sections related to the election, duties, etc., of county superintendents; to school districts and district trustees; to the election, duties, etc., of teachers; to district school funds; to district school bonds. Repealed ch. 31, Acts of 1911, providing for high-school districts.
Ch. 78, Mar. 17, 1915.

Virginia: County school board to hold annual meeting in the month of July, exact date to be fixed by board or president. Ch. 421, Mar. 21, 1916.

Virginia: Requiring county school boards to make out and publish annually a statement of receipts and disbursements for each school district of the county. Ch. 466, Mar. 22, 1916.

Wisconsin: Repealing secs. 461b, 461d, 461r, 698, 698a, and 704 of the statutes, relating to the duties, salary, expenses, and assistants of county superintendents, and secs. 702–1 to 702–13, inclusive, relating to county boards of education; creating sec. 704 of the statutes, relating to the appointment and duties of committees on common schools in the several counties of the State, and creating sec. 698 of the statutes, relating to the election, salary and expenses, assistants, clerks, and duties of county and district superintendents and making an appropriation therefor.

Repealed sec. 461b, prohibiting county or district superintendent receiving a salary of more than $800 from engaging in any other occupation. Repealed sec. 461d, directing county board to provide expenses for county superintendent. Repealed sec. 461r, authorizing superintendent of county or superintendent of district having not fewer than 100 schools to employ an assistant. Repealed sec. 698, providing for the election by popular vote of county superintendent. Repealed sec. 698a, relating to salary of district superintendent. Repealed sec. 704, providing that county board of supervisors should fix salaries of county and district superintendent. Repealed secs. 702–1 to 702–13, providing for a county board of education of five members and fixing its duties, etc. New sec. 704 provides for a committee on common schools in each county or county superintendent district; composed of three members; appointed by county board of supervisors; term, three years, one being appointed each year. "To act as a committee on common schools for the creation, dissolution, or consolidation of school districts, or alteration of school-district boundaries, and the appointment of supervising teachers." Members not to be appointed from a city under superintendent of schools; such city not to be taxed for expenses of committee. In counties having two superintendent districts, a committee shall be appointed for each such district. Committee shall meet annually in December, and special meetings may be called. Necessary blanks, books, etc., furnished by county. County superintendent shall attend meetings when requested. Members shall receive a per diem of $3 and expenses, but not for more than 15 days in a year. Person aggrieved by local authorities in the alteration of district may appeal to county committee and thence to State superintendent. Within two years after appointment committee shall prepare a map of county showing boundaries of school districts, and the same shall be filed in the office of county superintendent. No order for the consolidation of school districts shall be made, if a majority of qualified electors voting at election shall vote against consolidation. Committee shall report annually to county board of supervisors.

Amended sec. 698 provides for the election of county officers. Superintendent of schools of each county or superintendent district shall be elected by qualified electors biennially in April (other officers elected at general election). County board of supervisors shall fix salary of county or district superintendent. No county or district superintendent receiving over $800 per annum shall teach or engage in any other occupation during the term for which employed which will interfere with the discharge of his duties. Such superintendent shall be allowed necessary expenses. County board of supervisors may authorize superintendent having more than 60 schools under his supervision to employ a clerk and may fix his compensation; said supervisors may also appropriate money to employ persons to assist in marking papers in examinations for common-school diplomas. In county divided into two superintendent districts, only supervisors residing in each such district shall exercise powers mentioned above for such district; supervisor in city having city superintendent are excluded from participation. Committee on common schools shall annually, on nomination of county superintendent, appoint one supervising teacher to assist said superintendent; in county or district having more than 125 schools two such teachers may be appointed. Such teacher appointed for 10 calendar months at salary of $60 to $80 per month and expenses. Such teacher must hold one of the higher grade certificates and must have taught at least three years. He shall assist superintendent in supervising schools and promoting educational interest, and shall report weekly to superintendent. Superintendent shall report with recommendations to the clerk of districts visited; he shall report annually in July to State superintendent. When approved by State superintendent, salary and expenses of supervising teacher are paid by State. County or district superintendent allowed necessary expenses for attending convention of superintendents called by State superintendent once a year. Ch. 531, Aug. 10, 1915.

A (c2). County Officers.

Alabama: See A (c1), County boards; H (f), Compulsory attendance; H (g), Child labor.

Arizona: Classifying the counties of the State according to property valuation, and fixing the salaries of State and county officers.

Salary of superintendent of public instruction, $3,000. Salaries of county superintendents: First class, $2,400; second class, $2,000; third class, $2,000; fourth class, $1,500; fifth class, $1,000. Deputies, clerks, etc., provided for county superintendents. Ch. 61, Mar. 14, 1917.

Arkansas: Fixing compensation of county superintendent at $1,500 per annum. Act 316, Mar. 24, 1917.

California: Amending sec. 1543 of the Political Code, relating to duties of county superintendents.

Minor amendments, the most notable of which is the provision for the transfer of funds from a common-school district to a high-school district for the purpose of paying tuition of pupils in intermediate schools, i. e., seventh and eighth grades. Ch. 454, May 22, 1915.

California: See also A (e), School meetings, elections, voters; A (f), Administrative units—districts, etc.; L (a), Course of study.

Colorado: Fixing the salaries of county superintendents of schools.

Salaries fixed as follows: Counties of first class, $2,800 per annum; second class, $2,000; third class, $1,500; fourth class, $1,100; fifth class, $900; sixth class, $500 seventh class, $100. Ch. 87, Apr. 12, 1915.

Colorado: Fixing the salaries of county superintendents of schools.

Counties classified and salaries fixed according to classification: First class, $2,800 per annum; second class, $2,000; third class, $1,500; fourth class, $1,100; fifth class, $900; sixth class, $500; seventh class, $100. Traveling expenses allowed. Ch. 72, Mar. 16, 1917.

Delaware: Providing for an increase of the contingent funds of county superintendents.

Increases such funds from $300 annually for each county to $500, $400, and $600 for New Castle, Kent, and Sussex Counties, respectively. Ch. 162, Mar. 2, 1915.

Delaware: Amending sec. 2298, ch. 71, Revised Code of 1915, relating to salaries of county superintendents.

County superintendent may be either male or female. Salary raised from $1,200 to $1,600 per annum. Contingent fund increased. Ch. 179, Apr. 2, 1917.

Delaware: See also B (e), State aid for elementary education.

Florida: See H (f), Compulsory attendance.

Idaho: Amending sec. 37, ch. 159, Acts of 1911, relating to the duties of county superintendent of schools.

Adds requirement that he report on sanitary condition of schoolhouses to county board of health. Ch. 120, Mar. 13, 1917.

Illinois: Amending sec. 5 of "An act to establish and maintain a system of free schools," approved June 12, 1909.

Changes beginning of county superintendent's term of office from December to August. Requires such superintendent to be actually engaged in educational work, to be the holder of a county supervisory certificate or a State certificate and to have had at least four years' experience in teaching.
S. B. 162, p. 628, June 28, 1915.

Illinois: Amending sec. 207 of "An act to establish and maintain a system of free schools," approved June 12, 1909.

Authorizes county fiscal board to allow traveling expenses to county superintendent. S. B. 106, p. 629, June 25, 1915.

Illinois: See also B (e), State aid for elementary education; D (c), Sanitation, etc., of schoolhouses; N (a), High schools.

Indiana: See E (b), Teachers' certificates, general.

Iowa: Amending sec. 2734b, Supplement to the Code, 1913, relating to the appointment of deputy county superintendents.

Appointment of deputy to be made by county superintendent "with the approval of the board of supervisors entered by record."
Ch. 317, Apr. 23, 1917.

Iowa: See also H (e), Consolidation of districts, etc.

Kansas: Relating to the nomination and election of county superintendents of schools.

In primary and general elections, voters in cities of first and second classes shall not be entitled to vote for county superintendent, but a person residing in any part of the county may be elected to such office. Ch. 210, Mar. 13, 1915.

Kansas: Authorizing the appointment of assistant county superintendents in counties employing more than 235 teachers, exclusive of those employed in cities of the first and second classes. Ch. 132, Mar. 12, 1917.

Kansas: Amending sec. 4710, General Statutes of 1915, relating to the salaries of county superintendents of schools.

Has effect of raising such salaries in the larger counties.
Ch. 191, Mar. 22, 1917.

Kansas: See also E (b), Teachers' certificates, general; H (e), Consolidation of districts, etc.; N (a), High schools.

Kentucky: See A (c1), County boards; G (b), State normal schools.

Louisiana: Requiring sheriffs and ex officio tax collectors to submit to parish [county] superintendents monthly statements of poll taxes received.
Act No. 189, July 6, 1916.

Louisiana: See also A (a), Administration and supervision, general.

Maryland: See A (a), Administration and supervision, general.

Michigan: Amending sec. 5885, Compiled Laws 1915, relating to the compensation of county commissioner of schools.

Reduces from 50 to 30 the number of schoolrooms necessary to entitle such commissioner to $500 per annum. Act No. 21, Mar. 29, 1917.

Minnesota: Amending sec. 1, ch. 216, General Laws of 1911, relating to the salaries of county superintendents and the appointment of assistant superintendents.

The salary of county superintendent shall not be reduced because of consolidation of districts and consequent reduction of number of schools.
Ch. 141, Apr. 16, 1915.

Minnesota: Fixing at $2,500 the annual salary of county superintendent of schools in county of over 300,000 inhabitants, and authorizing such county superintendent to appoint an assistant at a salary of $1,800 per annum and a clerk at not exceeding $1,000 per annum. Ch. 511, Apr. 21, 1917.

Minnesota: See also F (c), Teachers' pensions; H (e), Consolidation of districts, etc.

Mississippi: An act to amend sec. 4498 of the Mississippi Code of 1906, so as to change the time when county superintendents of education shall make annual report to the State superintendent.

Such report shall be made on or before Sept. 15. Mar. 24, 1916.

Mississippi: Amending sec. 4501 of the Mississippi Code of 1906, relative to the salary of county superintendents of education and requiring all their time to be devoted to the duties of their office.

Fixes salary at 5 per cent of county school funds, but not exceeding $1,800 nor less than $1,000; county board of supervisors may fix such salary at more than said 5 per cent, but not to exceed $1,800. Ch. 183, Apr. 8, 1916.

Mississippi: See also A (f), Administrative units—districts, etc.

Missouri: Providing teaching expenses and clerical help for county superintendents. S. B. 254, p. 497, Mar. 17, 1917.

Montana: Amending sec. 1, ch. 109, Session Laws of 1913, relating to the employment of county agricultural instructors.

Strikes out provision that county commissioners may appropriate $100 per month as part salary of such instructor only when requested by 51 per cent of qualified voters engaged in agricultural pursuits. Transfers appointment and control of such instructors from director of experiment station to president of college of agriculture. Omits provision for remainder of salary. Omits provision for the employment of such instructor by two or more counties jointly. Ch. 54, Mar. 3, 1915.

Montana: Fixing the salaries of county superintendents of schools in counties of the seventh and eighth classes at the sum of $1,200 per annum. Ch. 72, Mar. 5, 1915.

Montana: Amending secs. 302 and 303, ch. 76, Acts of 1913, and sec. 3195, Revised Codes, 1907, relating to county superintendents, their duties and expenses.

In counties having 100 or more teachers in districts of the third class, county commissioners may appoint a deputy county superintendent. Provision that not exceeding $200 may be expended for useful charts, maps, and models is struck out. County superintendent to be paid necessary traveling expenses. Ch. 110, Mar. 1, 1917.

Montana: See also F (c), Teachers' pensions; N (a), High schools.

Nebraska: Amending sec. 1954, Revised Statutes, 1913, relating to terms of county officers.

Term of county superintendent, four years. Ch. 31, Apr. 11, 1917.

Nebraska: Amending sec. 2452, Revised Statutes, 1913, relating to salaries of county superintendents.

Requires county board to pay superintendent's traveling expenses at rate of 10 cents per mile traveled in the performance of duties. Ch. 47, Apr. 21, 1917.

Nebraska: See also A (b2), State officers; B (e), State aid for elementary education; H (e), Consolidation of districts, etc.

New Jersey: Providing for county supervisors of departments of child study. Ch. 88, Mar. 22, 1917.

New Jersey: See also A (d), District boards and officers.

New Mexico: Fixing the salaries of county officers.

Salaries of county superintendents of schools fixed as follows: County of first class, $2,000 per annum; second class, $1,800; third class, $1,500; fourth class, $1,400; fifth class, $1,300, but in counties having fewer than 11 school districts salary shall be $750. Salaries paid quarterly out of the county school fund. Ch. 12, Acts of 1915.

New Mexico: Requiring county school superintendents to visit each school at least once a year and providing compensation therefor.

Ch. 101, Mar. 13, 1917.

New Mexico: See also A (c1), County boards; B (d), State taxation for school purposes; E (b), Teachers' certificates, general; N (a), High schools.

North Carolina: See B (e), State aid for elementary education; E (b), Teachers' certificates, general.

North Dakota: Amending sec. 1252, Compiled Laws of 1913, relating to supervision of schools in special school districts.

Gives county superintendent supervision over such schools when no superintendent is employed in a special district. Ch. 136, Feb. 13, 1915.

North Dakota: Amending sec. 1136, Compiled Laws, 1913, relating to the county superintendent of schools.

County superintendent entitled to office deputy in county having 50 or more teachers (formerly "schools"). Entitled to field deputies in proportion to number of schools before consolidation.

H. B. 149, p. 66 Pop. Ed., Mar. 13, 1917.

North Dakota: See also F (c), Teachers' pensions.

Ohio: Amending secs. 4738, 4692, 4696, 4736, 4740, 4744-3, and 7730 of the General Code relating to the supervision of rural and village schools, and repealing secs. 7655-5 and 7655-6 of the General Code.

Supervision districts into which county board of education is required to divide the county must each have not fewer than 30 teachers (was between 20 and 60). County board may require county superintendent to personally supervise not exceeding 40 teachers in rural and village schools and this shall supersede the necessity of district supervision therein. County board of education may transfer a part or all of a school district of the county school district to an adjoining district or districts, but such transfer shall not be made if a majority of the qualified electors residing in the territory to be transferred shall within 30 days file a written remonstrance against such transfer. (Old law permitted county board to make transfer with the consent of boards of education of districts affected.) County board may transfer a part or all of a school district of a county district to an exempted village district or city district, if petitioned by at least 50 per cent of qualified electors of territory to be transferred; such transfer shall be made on petition of 75 per cent of said electors, but in any case consent of board of education of exempted village or city district must be secured. Any village or rural district or union of districts for high-school purposes which maintains a first-grade high school and which employs a principal shall, upon application to the county board before June 1 of any year, be continued as a separate district under the direct supervision of the county superintendent; such principal shall perform duties of district superintendent, but shall teach such part of day as district board or boards may direct; no special State aid for the payment of said principal shall be allowed. (Old law allowed such aid for superintendent of such a district.) School board of a village or rural district may suspend any school therein; such school shall be suspended when average attendance of preceding year was below 10 (was 12), and the pupils shall be transferred to another school when directed by county board; such school may be reestablished by suspending authority when enrollment reaches 12 or more. Contingent expenses allowed to county and district superintendents. (Repealed sections provided special State aid to consolidated district.) S. B. No. 282, p. 396, May 27, 1915.

Ohio: See also A (f), Administrative units—districts, etc.; L (j), Agriculture; M (e), University extension, public lectures.

Oklahoma: Authorizing county superintendents to employ clerks in certain cases.

In any county having a population of 25,000 or more, exclusive of cities of the first class, and in which there are not fewer than 185 organized school districts and in which there are conducted not fewer than 80 separate or minority schools, county superintendent may expend not exceeding $800 per annum for clerk hire. Ch. 17, Feb. 9, 1915.

Oklahoma: See also H (e), Consolidation of districts, etc.

Oregon: Amending sec. 3960 of Lord's Oregon Laws, relating to the election of county school superintendent.

Raises qualifications of such superintendent. He must hold a certificate based upon graduation from a standard normal school, standard university, or a standard college, or be the holder of a life certificate entitling him to teach in all the grades of the public elementary schools and the public high schools of the State. Ch. 55, Feb. 10, 1915.

Oregon: See also C (c), Local taxation; H (f), Compulsory attendance; N (a), High schools.

Pennsylvania: Requiring the county commissioners to provide, at the expense of the county, a telephone, typewriter, and stenographer for the use of the county superintendent of schools. Act No. 323, June 1, 1915.

Pennsylvania: Providing that county superintendents shall be paid monthly instead of quarterly. Act No. 104, Apr. 28, 1915.

Pennsylvania: Amending sec. 1130 of the School Code, relating to the salary of assistant county superintendent of schools.

Minimum salary of assistant superintendent of schools increased from $1,200 to $1,800. Additional superintendents provided by convention of school directors shall receive such compensation as said convention may determine. Act No. 267, July 6, 1917.

Pennsylvania: Amending sec. 1121 of the School Code, relating to the salaries of county superintendents.

Raises minimum salary from $1,500 to $2,000. Raises maximum salary from $2,000 to $2,500, but convention of school directors may vote to pay more. Act. No. 268, July 6, 1917.

South Carolina: Extending from two years to four years the term of office of the county superintendent of education in certain counties. Act No. 128, Mar. 11, 1915.

South Carolina: Amending the law with reference to the salaries, terms, and appointments of county officers.

Fixes salaries of county superintendents of education in certain counties. Act No. 146, Mar. 12, 1915.

South Carolina: See also H (f), Compulsory attendance.

South Dakota: Amending sec. 25, ch. 135, Acts of 1907, relating to deputy county superintendents.

In county of over 65 (was 75) schools, county superintendent may appoint a deputy or clerk. Ch. 177, Mar. 8, 1915.

South Dakota: Amending sec. 29, ch. 135, Acts of 1907, providing for the payment of necessary traveling expenses of county superintendents when visiting schools or attending teachers' meetings within the county. Ch. 179, Mar. 6, 1915.

South Dakota: Establishing the salaries of county superintendents of schools.

Such salaries based on assessed valuation of property and population. Ch. 188, Mar. 9, 1917.

South Dakota: Fixing the date when the term of office of the county superintendents of schools shall begin. Ch. 210, Feb. 2, 1917.

Tennessee: Fixing the salaries of certain county officers in counties of over 30,000 inhabitants.

Fixes salary of "county trustee," who is county treasurer. He is to receive a straight salary and cease receiving a percentage of the school fund.
Ch. 47, Mar. 28, 1917.

Tennessee: Making all county superintendents' certificates of qualification good in any county of the State, and providing for the professional certification of county superintendents. Ch. 94, Apr. 7, 1917.

Texas: See A (c1), County boards; A (d), District boards and officers; H (f), Compulsory attendance; S (a), Libraries, general.

Utah: See A (c1), County boards.

Washington: See A (e), School meetings, elections, etc.; H (e), Consolidation of districts, etc.

West Virginia: See E (b), Teachers' certificates, general; G (d), Teachers' institutes and summer schools.

Wisconsin: See A (c1), County boards; E (b), Teachers' certificates, general; K (c), Uniform textbooks.

Wyoming: Amending sec. 1297, ch. 99, Wyoming Compiled Statutes, fixing the salaries of county superintendents.

In counties having an assessed valuation of more than $5,000,000, salary shall be $1,000; in counties having an assessed valuation of less than $5,000,000 and counties having an assessed valuation of less than $2,000,000, salary shall be $500. Expenses also provided. Ch. 156, Mar. 5, 1915.

Wyoming: Providing for the nonpartisan election of county superintendents of schools and providing for all electors to vote at primary elections for nonpartisan officers without declaring party affiliation. Ch. 59, Feb. 17, 1917.

A (d). District, Township, and Municipal Boards and Officers.

Alabama: Amending sec. 1355 of the Code of 1907, relating to boards of education of cities and towns.

In cities of between 2,000 and 6,000 population board of education shall consist of five members elected by council or other civil governing body; term of members, five years, one being elected each year. In towns of less than 2,000 population the management and control of the public schools shall be vested in the county board of education. (Formerly vested in local board of five members.) Act No. 495, p. 559, Sept. 16, 1915.

Alabama: Authorizing women to serve on boards of education of counties, cities, and towns. Act No. 14, p. 51, Feb. 1, 1915.

Alabama: See also A (b1), State boards; A (c1), County boards; H (f), Compulsory attendance; H (g), Child labor.

Alaska: See A (f), Administrative units—districts, etc.

California: Amending sec. 1593 of the Political Code, relating to the election of school trustees. Ch. 489, May 24, 1915.

California: Relating to the employment of janitors and other employees of certain school districts.

In district wholly within a city of first class such employees shall be employed in the same manner and under the same conditions as teachers are employed.
Ch. 512, May 17, 1917.

California: Amending secs. 1611, 1613, 1614, 1615, 1616, and 1617 of the Political Code; adding thereto 10 new sections; repealing secs. 1617a, 1617b, 1617c, and 1617d, relating to boards of trustees and city boards of education.

Provides for the election of such boards and prescribes their powers and duties. Various minor changes. Ch. 552, May 18, 1917.

California: Adding sec. 1617b to the Political Code, relating to the powers of trustees of elementary schools.

Authorizes certain elementary school districts to contract with a State normal school for the education of their children in model schools.
Ch. 741, May 31, 1916.

Colorado: Enlarging the powers of boards of education of school districts of the first class.

Said board may establish and maintain out of district funds continuation schools, part-time schools, evening schools, vocational schools, schools for aliens or other opportunity schools; said schools to be open to such persons as superintendent or principal may admit. Board may also establish and maintain open-air schools, playgrounds, and museums. It may employ teachers of such special subjects as music, drawing, manual training, household economics, and vocational and industrial subjects. It may prescribe qualifications of and certificate such teachers. Ch. 87, Apr. 10, 1917.

Colorado: Amending sec. 5915, Revised Statutes of 1908, as amended by ch. 207, Acts of 1911, relating to the number of directors in school districts.

Increases from 5 to 7 the number of directors in districts having a school population of 20,000 or over. Term of office remains six years.
Ch. 118, Feb. 26, 1917.

Colorado: Amending secs. 5934 and 5940, Revised Statutes of 1908, relating to the powers and duties of district officers.

In districts having a school population of over 80,000, district treasurer shall retain and disburse funds. Provision for a vice president of the board in districts of the first class. Ch. 121, Apr. 10, 1917.

Connecticut: Amending sec. 2177 of the General Statutes, relating to the powers and duties of school districts.

When town school visitors employ a superintendent such superintendent is authorized to employ teachers. Ch. 172, Apr. 29, 1915.

Connecticut: Authorizing school boards to elect one of their members secretary and one treasurer. Ch. 290, May 20, 1915.

Connecticut: Amending ch. 146, public acts of 1909, relating to number of members of town school committees.

Omits clause exempting consolidated districts from provision that school committee shall consist of 3, 6, 9, or 12 members. Ch. 80, Apr. 24, 1917.

Connecticut: See also F (c), Teachers' pensions; J (b), Medical inspection; M (d), Vacation schools, playgrounds.

Delaware: Adding 2287A, sec. 15A, to ch. 71, Revised Code of 1915.

District school committee may require bond of district clerk.
Ch. 176, Apr. 2, 1917.

Delaware: See also A (f), Administrative units—districts, etc.

Florida: See H (f), Compulsory attendance; L (i), Manual and industrial education.

Georgia: See H (f), Compulsory attendance.

Idaho: Amending sec. 125, ch. 159, Acts of 1911, prescribing the manner of election of trustees of independent districts. Ch. 131, Mar. 14, 1917.

Illinois: Amending sec. 22 of "An act to establish and maintain a system of free schools," approved June 12, 1909, as subsequently amended.

In townships of over 20,000 population, nomination for township trustees must be by petition of at least 25 legal voters filed at least 10 days before election. H. B. 134, p. 658, June 23, 1915.

Illinois: Amending an act approved May 29, 1879, as amended, by providing that in all cities constituting a school district having a population of 45,000 or more, to which said act applies, the board of education shall consist of 11 persons, one of whom shall be president thereof, nominated by the mayor from the city at large and confirmed by the council.

H. B. 69, p. 721, Apr. 26, 1917.

Illinois: Property conveyed, devised, or bequeathed to a school district shall vest in school board, unless otherwise vested by donor.

H. B. 775, p. 746, June 27, 1917.

Illinois: See also A (e), School meetings, elections, voters; D (c), Sanitation, etc., of schoolhouses; N (a), High schools.

Indiana: Amending sec. 6477, Revised Statutes of 1908, relating to school trustees in incorporated cities and towns.

Reduces treasurer's bond from twice amount handled to a sum equal to amount handled. Ch. 28, Feb. 27, 1915.

Indiana: Authorizing incorporated towns having less than 2,000 population to contract with township trustees relative to the joint use of the schools of such towns by inhabitants of such town and those of the township.

Ch. 24, Feb. 24, 1917.

Indiana: Amending sec. 6526, Burns' Revised Statutes of 1914, relating to business director in cities of over 100,000 population.

Raises from $3,000 to $4,000 the maximum annual salary of business director. All persons in the employ of the board, except as otherwise provided by law, shall perform their duties under the supervision of the director.

Ch. 101, Mar. 7, 1917.

Indiana: See also N (a), High schools.

Iowa: Relating to the employment of teachers and superintendents of schools.

Authorizes school directors of independent districts to employ superintendent for terms of not exceeding three years, but such superintendent must serve one year before contract for longer term can be made.

School laws, 1915, p. 73.

Iowa: Amending sec. 2757, supplement to the Code, relating to meetings of school boards.

Changes time of meeting for organization of boards in townships maintaining high schools and in consolidated independent districts. Time changed from first day of July to third Monday in March. School laws, 1915, p. 46.

Iowa: Amending sec. 2781 of the Code, relating to financial reports of school boards.

Adds board of independent school district or school township to boards which must publish financial reports. Ch. 223, Apr. 12, 1917.

Iowa: See also H (e), Consolidation of district, etc.; M (d), Vacation schools, playgrounds, etc.; O (a), Industrial education, general.

Kansas: Providing for holding annual county conventions for members of school boards. Ch. 302, Feb. 18, 1915.

Kansas: Amending sec. 9087, General Statutes of 1915, relating to boards of education in cities of the first class. Board to appoint a clerk.

Ch. 269, Mar. 7, 1917.

Kansas: Amending sec. 9065, General Statutes of 1915, relating to school boards in cities of the first and second classes.

In newly organized cities of the second class, board to be elected at organization election. Three members for term to expire in August of first odd-numbered year and three for term to expire in August of second odd-numbered year succeeding the election. Thereafter terms to be four years.

Ch. 371, Mar. 12, 1917.

Kansas: See also M (d), Vacation schools, playgrounds, etc.; N (a), High schools.

Kentucky: Amending secs. 2, 22, 24, 26, and 28, ch. 187, acts of 1912, relating to boards of education in cities of the second class.

Authorizes the mortgaging of school property for purchasing real estate for school purposes. Authorizes contracting with a bank to act as treasurer. Unexpended balance of current expense funds at the end of fiscal year may be transferred to "site and building fund." Tax in addition to 30 cents on the hundred dollars for maintenance purposes may be levied to pay interest on school bonds and create a sinking fund. Limit of $250,000 on school indebtedness stricken out, and limit of 2 per cent of property valuation substituted therefor. Ch. 57, Mar. 23, 1916.

Kentucky: Authorizing the acceptance of gifts and trusts regarding education by boards of education and regulating the administration thereof.

Ch. 86, 1916. (Neither approved nor disapproved by the governor.)

Louisiana: See A (a), Administration and supervision, general.

Maine: Amending sec. 34, ch. 15, of the Revised Statutes, as amended by ch. 173, Public Laws of 1911, and ch. 78, Public Laws of 1913, relating to the employment of superintendents of schools.

As amended, provision is that after July 1, 1916, no person shall be eligible as superintendent under this section unless he shall hold a teacher's State certificate or a State certificate of superintendence grade.

Ch. 129, Mar. 17, 1915.

Maine: Amending sec. 117, ch. 16, Revised Statutes of 1916, relating to the employment of agents to have direction of schools in unorganized townships.

Increases from $2,200 to $3,000 the amount which State superintendent may expend for such agents. Ch. 51, Mar. 19, 1917.

Maine: Amending secs. 55, 56, 57, 58, 59, 61, and 62, ch. 16, Revised Statutes of 1916, to provide for the formation of unions for the employment of superintendents of schools. Ch. 188, Apr. 6, 1917.

Maryland: See A (a), Administration and supervision, general.

Michigan: Amending sec. 25, ch. 3, Act No. 164, Public Acts of 1881, as last amended by Act No. 218, Public Acts of 1911, relating to the duties of school district treasurers.

Electors at annual meeting may designate a depository or depositories in which district funds shall be placed; if electors fail so to do, district board may designate a depository or depositories; treasurer shall deposit funds therein; depository shall give bond, in which case treasurer shall not be held liable for neglect or default of depository. Act No. 40, Apr. 1, 1915.

Michigan: Providing for the organization of school districts in cities having a population of over 100,000 and less than 250,000; providing for a board of education for such districts; prescribing the powers and duties of such board.

Act No. 141, Apr. 25, 1917.

Michigan: Amending sec. 5911, Compiled Laws 1915, relating to the election of township school trustees.

Requires names of candidates to be on ballot. Candidate to be nominated by petition of not less than 25 voters. (Not applicable to Upper Peninsula).
Act No. 304, May 10, 1917.

Michigan: Amending sec. 5915, Compiled Laws 1915, relating to meetings of township school boards.

Formerly one regular meeting per month provided for; now two regular meetings and four special meetings per annum provided for.
Act No. 314, May 10, 1917.

Michigan: See also F (c), Teachers' pensions; K (b), Free textbooks.

Minnesota: Providing for the publication of proceedings of meetings of school boards of independent school districts. Ch. 360, Apr. 24, 1915.

Minnesota: Authorizing boards of education in cities of over 50,000 inhabitants to provide by resolution for the prompt payment of bills rendered for goods purchased for school purposes. Ch. 149, Apr. 16, 1915.

Minnesota: Authorizing members of school boards of common school districts employing not more than three teachers to contract with, do work for, furnish supplies to, and receive pay from such school districts.
Ch. 306, Apr. 17, 1917.

Minnesota: Relating to boards of education in cities of over 50,000 inhabitants not governed under a home rule charter, and fixing the number of members of such board, and providing for the election and terms of office of members of such boards.

Nine school directors for Minneapolis. Overlapping terms of six years.
Ch. 446, Apr. 20, 1917.

Minnesota: See also D (f), Teachers' cottages; F (c), Teachers' pensions; H (e), Consolidation of districts, etc.

Missouri: Amending secs. 10847, 10867, and 10981, Revised Statutes, 1909, relating to the election and qualifications of school directors, by striking out certain words therein and inserting others in lieu thereof, to permit women to serve as such directors. H. B. 207, p. 505, Mar. 22, 1917.

Montana: Providing for the creation, organization, and classification of new counties.

Provides that school district trustees in newly organized counties shall continue in office for the remainder of their terms. Ch. 139, Mar. 9, 1915.

Nebraska: Amending sec. 6950, Revised Statutes of 1913, relating to boards of education, providing for the nomination of candidates thereof in cities having a population of more than 40,000 and less than 100,000 at primaries.
Ch. 123, Mar. 24, 1915.

Nebraska: Amending sec. 7011, Revised Statutes of 1915, relating to boards of education in metropolitan cities.

Board of education shall consist of 12 members, who after 1918 shall be elected in groups of six every two years. (Old law provided for the election of one member from each ward.) Ch. 125, Apr. 17, 1915.

Nebraska: See also M (d), Vacation schools, playgrounds, etc.

Nevada: Amending sec. 3303, Revised Laws, 1912, relating to district boards of school trustees.

Increases from $10 to $25 per month the pay that may be allowed the clerk of the school board. Ch. 96, Mar. 14, 1917.

Nevada: See also F (a), Teachers' contracts, duties, etc.; H (e), Consolidation of districts, etc.

New Hampshire: See H (g), Child labor.

New Jersey: Providing for the consolidation of boroughs or other municipalities with cities lying in different counties.

Section 12 provides that upon such consolidation the board of education of the borough shall cease to exist and its powers and duties shall vest in the city board of education. The supervision of the county superintendent of county in which city is situated shall extend to the schools of the borough.
Ch. 374, Apr. 21, 1915.

New Jersey: Supplementing an act to establish a thorough and efficient system of free public schools.

When two or more districts unite in employing a supervisor, other than a supervising principal, county superintendent shall annually apportion $400 for each supervisor so employed. Ch. 189, Apr. 6, 1915.

New Jersey: Authorizing public officials to give as surety on their official bonds any incorporated surety company authorized to do business in the State.
Ch. 21, Mar. 7, 1916.

New Jersey: Relating to the election of members of boards of education in townships, incorporated towns, and borough school districts.

In any district where the enrollment of pupils exceeds 1,000, board of education may provide more than one polling place. (Old law provided for only one polling place.) Ch. 66, Mar. 15, 1916.

New Jersey: Joint resolution for the appointment of a commission to investigate the methods employed and the laws which govern the financing of municipal, school district, and county affairs. J. R. No. 10, Mar. 27, 1917.

New Jersey: See also C (a), Local finance and support, general.

New Mexico: See A (c1), County boards; B (d), State taxation for school purposes; E (b), Teachers' certificates, general.

New York: Amending the general municipal law relating to the power of the State comptroller to examine the accounts of school authorities.

Said comptroller may, with approval of commissioner of education, examine the accounts of school officers of cities and union free school districts of over 5,000 population. Ch. 307, May 2, 1917.

New York: Amending the education law by creating town boards of education and providing for the support and maintenance of schools in towns.

Ch. 328, May 2, 1917.

New York: Amending the Greater New York charter by creating the position of city superintendent of schools emeritus. Ch. 621, May 22, 1917.

New York: Amending the education law by providing for a board of education in each of the several cities of the State.

A city having nine members or less on its board of education shall continue to have same number as formerly; city of over 1,000,000 inhabitants shall have seven members; all other cities shall have nine members, except that in newly created cities the number shall be five. New York City to have seven members appointed by the mayor; term, seven years, one appointed each year; two from Manhattan, two from Brooklyn, and one from each of the other three boroughs. Buffalo to have five members appointed by the mayor, with the consent of the council; term, five years, one appointed each year. Boards to be elected where elected heretofore and appointed where appointed heretofore. In case of city having nine members, term is to be five years; two or one, as the case requires, to be elected or appointed each year. Powers, duties, etc., of boards not materially changed. Ch. 786, June 8, 1917.

New York: Amending the education law relative to the salary of district superintendent.

Increases from $1,200 to $1,500 the annual amount to be paid by State to each district superintendent. Ch. 794, June 9, 1917.

North Carolina: See A (f), Administrative units—districts, etc.

North Dakota: See M (b), Kindergartens; S (b), Public school libraries.

Ohio: Amending secs. 4752, 7690, 7695, and 7696, and supplementing sec. 4752 of the General Code by the enactment of sec. 4752-1, relating to the powers and duties of boards of education in city school districts.

Authorizes such boards to adopt an "annual appropriation resolution" and thus dispense with the adoption of numerous detail resolutions for the purchase of property, payment of bills, etc. Under such appropriation resolution, property (except real estate) may be purchased or sold, employees (except teachers) may be appointed, and debts and claims may be paid.

S. B. No. 24, p. 46, Mar. 19, 1917.

Ohio: See also A (c2), County officers; A (f), Administrative units—districts, etc.; H (e), Consolidation of districts, etc.; M (d), Vacation schools, playgrounds, etc.

Oklahoma: Amending sec. 6, art. 3, and sec. 38, art. 5, and sec. 6, art. 6, ch. 219, Acts of 1913, relating to and fixing the date for holding the annual school meeting; providing for the reporting of collections and disbursements by county treasurer to school district boards; providing that cities having a charter form of government may fix the number of members of the board of education, and may regulate the time and manner of electing the members of such board of education. Ch. 278, Mar. 31, 1915.

Oklahoma: Requiring boards of education of independent districts to make an annual financial and statistical report to the State superintendent of public instruction, and authorizing the withholding of the July apportionment of the public school fund from such independent districts until such report has been filed and approved. Ch. 259, Feb. 14, 1917.

Oregon: Amending sec. 4087, Lord's Oregon Laws, relating to the election of district directors.

In district of first class, one director elected every year for term of five years. In other districts, one director every year for term of three years. Districts of second class may hold elections in manner prescribed for districts of the first class, when authorized by a majority of the legal voters. Ch. 44, Feb. 3, 1917.

Oregon: Declaring school directors subject to recall from office and providing the method of such recall. Ch. 49, Feb. 6, 1917.

Oregon: Amending secs. 4094, 4096, 4097, 4098, and 4100, Lord's Oregon Laws, so as to change the term of office of school directors in districts of the first class from five years to three years. Ch. 281, Feb. 20, 1917.

Oregon: See also A (c1), County boards; A (e), School meetings, elections, etc.; M (d), Vacation schools, playgrounds, etc.

Pennsylvania: Prohibiting any officer or employee of any school district embraced in a city of the third class from serving as a member of the common council thereof. Act No. 67, Apr. 21, 1915.

Pennsylvania: Providing that no member of council of a municipality may be a school director, nor a school director a member of such council.
Act No. 250, May 28, 1915.

Porto Rico: Conferring upon women eligibility to become members of school boards in Porto Rico. Act. No. 4, Mar. 11, 1915.

Rhode Island: Amending sec. 9, ch. 66, General Laws of 1909, relating to the employment of town and city superintendents of schools.

In case any town has not availed itself of State aid for supervision under existing law, under this amendment, school committee thereof may request State board of education to provide supervision and said board may provide the same with State aid not to exceed $750 per annum, but such town shall pay to superintendent employed not less than $15 for each school in the town.
Ch. 1234, Apr. 23, 1915.

Rhode Island: Amending sec. 7, ch. 68, of the General Laws, relating to the employment of members of school committee as superintendents, principals, supervisors, or teachers.

No member of school board may be so employed so long as he remains a member. Ch. 1377, Apr. 14, 1916.

Rhode Island: Amending sec. 3, ch. 67, of the General Laws, entitled "Of powers and duties of school committees."

School committee to locate schoolhouses and have control of school property.
Ch. 1521, Apr. 19, 1917.

Rhode Island: See also H (e), Consolidation of districts, etc.

South Carolina: Granting to the city board of public school commissioners in cities containing over 40,000 inhabitants the power to condemn land for public school purposes. Act No. 504, Mar. 25, 1916.

South Carolina: See also H (f), Compulsory attendance.

South Dakota: Defining the powers of boards of education in cities constituting municipal corporations of the first and second classes.
Ch. 225, Mar. 10, 1917.

South Dakota: See also C (a), Local finance and support, general.

Tennessee: An act to make women eligible to election on boards of education in cities and counties and on governing boards of all State, county, and municipal institutions. Ch. 16, Mar. 12, 1915.

Texas: Providing for a uniform date of electing trustees of independent and common school districts, and providing for compensation of members of boards holding such elections, and providing manner of holding election, making returns, etc. Ch. 132, Mar. 30, 1915.

Texas: Directing the State superintendent of instruction to require of county judges, when acting as ex officio county superintendents, county, city, and town superintendents, county and city treasurers and depositors, treasurers and depositories of school boards, and other school officers and teachers certain reports relating to school funds and school affairs; providing that the State superintendent shall furnish blanks for such purpose; providing a penalty for failure on the part of such officers to make such reports within 20 days after required by State superintendent. Ch. 104, Mar. 28, 1917.

Texas: Regulating the bonding of treasurers of school funds.
Ch. 159, Mar. 30, 1917.

Texas: Fixing the qualifications of public-school trustees.
Ch. 199, Apr. 4, 1917.

Texas: See also A (c1), County boards.

Utah: See A (c1), County boards.

Vermont: Requiring boards of school directors to make annual financial reports with recommendations of amounts needed for following year.
Act No. 65, Mar. 31, 1915.

Vermont: Providing that school directors shall fill vacancy in office of clerk of an incorporated school district. No. 66, Apr. 7, 1917.

Vermont: See also A (a), Administration and supervision, general; J (b), Medical inspection.

Virginia: Amending sec. 1446 of the Code, relating to reports of county school boards.

Such boards shall make annual reports through division superintendents of schools to State superintendent of public instruction.
Ch. 272, Mar. 16, 1916.

Virginia: Amending sec. 1437 of the Code, relating to the division superintendent of schools, his appointment, term, etc.

Applicant for such superintendency must hold a State teacher's license, the equivalent of a first-grade certificate, must already hold the office of division superintendent, or must have taught for such length of time as may be designated by the State board of education. Ch. 467, Mar. 22, 1916.

Washington: Relating to misconduct of public-school superintendents, principals, and officers, and providing a penalty for such misconduct.
Ch. 126, Mar. 14, 1917.

West Virginia: Amending sec. 3, ch. 45, Code of West Virginia of 1913, relating to district boards of education.

In any district containing a city, not an independent district, which has more than 10,000 inhabitants, board of education shall consist of five members elected by qualified voters. (Number increased from three.)
Ch. 59, Feb. 20, 1915.

West Virginia: See also H (e), Consolidation, etc., of districts.

Wisconsin: Repealing sec. 462a, Wisconsin Statutes, relating to reports of district clerks.

Repealed section required clerk to report names of children, to meet with town clerk to formulate the annual district report, and to report the indebtedness of the district. Ch. 74, Apr. 11, 1917.

Wisconsin: Amending paragraph 18, sec. 430, and sec. 462, Wisconsin Statutes, relating to compensation of district treasurer and director, and to the duties of district clerk.

Fixes compensation of treasurer and director in common-school districts. Prescribes manner of making clerk's report. Ch. 143, Apr. 30, 1917.

Wisconsin: Amending sec. 432, Wisconsin Statutes, regulating meetings of district school boards. Ch. 165, May 3, 1917.

Wisconsin: Authorizing boards of education and district boards to provide lunches at cost to public-school pupils. Ch. 427, June 14, 1917.

Wisconsin: See also A (c1), County boards; K (c), Uniform textbooks.

Wyoming: Requiring the county treasurer to pay over monthly to the treasurer of each city, town, school district, and county libraries all funds theretofore collected by him for the benefit of the respective city, town, school district or county libraries.

Wyoming: See also J (b), Medical inspection.

A (e). School Meetings; Elections; Qualifications of Voters.

Alabama: See A (d), District boards and officers.

Arizona: Amending paragraph 2729, Ch. VIII, Title II, Revised Statutes of 1913, Civil Code.

Provides that at school elections polls shall be opened in every district at 10 a. m. and closed at 6 p. m. Ch. 11, Feb. 26, 1915.

California: Amending sec. 1599 of the Political Code, relating to the selection of school district trustees.

County superintendent to furnish ballots for such election. Manner of holding election prescribed. Ch. 26, May 21, 1917.

Delaware: See A (f), Administrative units—districts, etc.

Florida: See H (f), Compulsory attendance.

Idaho: Prescribing the qualifications of persons who may vote at school elections, including bond elections.

Persons over 21 who have resided in the district 30 days and who are (1) freeholders, including both husband and wife; (2) persons having children under 21 years of age. Ch. 47, Mar. 15, 1917.

Illinois: Adding sec. 126a of an "Act to establish and maintain a system of free schools," approved June 12, 1909.

Prescribes form of ballot for the election of boards of education in cities of 1,000 to 100,000 population. Provides that members of boards must be nominated by petition of at least 10 per cent of voters, but not exceeding 50 voters is required. H. B. 81, p. 626, June 23, 1915.

Illinois: Amending sec. 86 of an "Act to establish and maintain a system of free schools," approved June 12, 1909, as amended, relating to the election of township high-school boards.

Provides form of ballot, etc., for such election.
S. B. 237, June 28, 1917.

Illinois: See also C (b), Local bonds and indebtedness; N (a), High schools.

Iowa: Amending sec. 2755, Supplement to the Code, 1913, relating to school elections in school corporations.

Prescribes manner of holding such elections in school corporations of over 6,000 inhabitants. (Formerly applied to corporations of over 5,000.)
Ch. 225, Apr. 12, 1917.

Kansas: Relating to school elections in cities of the second class.

Requires provision for voting place for voters of district not residing within city limits; expense of school elections shall be borne by school board, except that when such elections are held with city election expense shall be paid in equal parts by city and school board. Ch. 307, Mar. 23, 1915.

Kansas: See also N (a), High schools.

Michigan: Amending sec. 17, Act No. 164, Public Acts of 1881, as last amended by Act No. 146, Public Acts of 1913, relating to electors in school elections in cities of 250,000 population or more.

Names qualifications of electors in school elections and on question of voting school taxes. Act. No. 300, May 19, 1915.

Michigan: Providing for the division of city school districts into election precincts and for the registration of voters and for the holding of elections in such precincts, when a majority of the voters voting on such proposition shall vote in favor of the same. Act No. 275, May 18, 1915.

Michigan: Amending sec. 5664, Compiled Laws of 1915, relating to the qualifications of voters at school elections.

Prescribes such qualifications. Act No. 7, Mar. 15, 1917.

Michigan: See also C (b), Local bonds and indebtedness.

Minnesota: Providing for the creation and establishment of election precincts, the election of members of school boards, the voting on the issuance of bonds, and the voting on all other matters specifically submitted for vote by ballot in independent school districts containing four or more organized villages. Ch. 111, Apr. 12, 1915.

Minnesota: Requiring candidate for district school office to file with district clerk, not less than 12 nor more than 30 days before election, application to place name on ballot. Ch. 384, Apr. 20, 1917.

Minnesota: See also H (e), Consolidation of districts, etc.

Missouri: Amending sec. 10879, art. 4, ch. 106, Revised Statutes of 1909, relating to school elections.

Each incorporated city or town in a school district shall have at least one polling place therein. H. B. 469, p. 386, Mar. 22, 1915.

Missouri: See also M (d), Vacation schools, playgrounds, etc.

Montana: Amending sec. 508, ch. 76, Acts of 1913, relating to powers and duties of school boards.

Prescribes manner of holding election for erection, removal, etc., of school houses in third-class districts. Ch. 61, Feb. 22, 1917.

Nebraska: Changing from the last Monday in June to the second Monday in June the time of holding annual district school meetings. Ch. 115, Mar. 18, 1915.

Nebraska: Amending sec. 2138 of the Revised Statutes for 1913, relating to primary elections.

Exempts school boards and members of boards of education from the operation of the primary election law. Ch. 33, Apr. 15, 1915.

Nebraska: Amending sec. 6798, Revised Statutes, 1913, relating to the election of school district boards.

In any district containing a village of over 500 inhabitants, school election shall be held at same time as regular village election, but votes to be on separate ballots. Ch. 120, Apr. 19, 1917.

Nebraska: Defining judicial officers and offices and school officers and offices, declaring them nonpartisan, and providing that the names of candidates for such offices shall appear alike upon all ballots at primaries and general elections. Ch. 148, Mar. 22, 1917.

Nebraska: See also A (f), Administrative units—districts, etc.; M (d), Vacation schools, playgrounds, etc.

New Jersey: Validating proceedings heretofore held in school districts where the district clerk has failed to post the number of notices directed by the board of education. Ch. 110, Mar. 16, 1916.

New York: Amending the education law, relative to the time of meetings in union free school districts. Ch. 232, Apr. 7, 1915.

New York: Amending the education law relative to the election of school directors.

Such election to be at town meeting where biennial town meetings are held at other times than at general election, except in Nassau and Suffolk counties. Ch. 168, Apr. 7, 1916.

New York: Amending the education law, relative to school elections in certain cities.

Prescribes manner of holding eletcions in cities in which members of the board of education are elected by the qualified voters at elections other than general or municipal elections. Ch. 791, June 8, 1917.

North Carolina: See C (b), Local bonds and indebtedness; M (b), Kindergartens.

North Dakota: See C (c), Local taxation.

Ohio: To provide for the election of members of rural school district boards of education and to cure defects in proceedings heretofore had by boards of education.

In rural districts created by county board of education the local school board shall be elected by qualified electors. S. B. No. 267, p. 550, June 4, 1915.

Oklahoma: See A (d), District boards and officers; H (e), Consolidation of districts, etc.; M (d), Vacation schools, playgrounds, etc.

Oregon: Providing for the time and manner of holding school elections in districts having more than 20,000 children of school age, and for canvassing and certifying returns; subjecting school elections in such districts to the provisions of ch. 12, title 27 of Lord's Oregon Laws, as amended by ch. 207, Acts of 1913 (primary-election law); abolishing annual school meeting and authorizing directors to fix tax to be levied; providing for the issuance of bonds on majority vote of school electors; prescribing a budget and proceedings relating thereto; requiring annual audit of school books; authorizing city superintendent to refuse admission to primary pupils of first grade after the first month of the school term. Ch. 163, Feb. 23, 1915.

Oregon: Providing for a more adequate notice of school district meetings and providing for the publication of a budget of the estimated revenues required for the ensuing year. Ch. 217, Feb. 28, 1915.

Oregon: Amending sec. 4089, Lord's Oregon Laws, fixing the qualifications of voters at school elections. Ch. 99, Feb. 12, 1917.

Oregon: See also C (c), Local taxation; N (a), High schools.

South Carolina: See H (f), Compulsory attendance; S (a), Public libraries.

South Dakota: Amending sec. 195, ch. 135, Acts of 1907, providing manner of giving notice of school-bond elections. Ch. 178, Mar. 8, 1915.

South Dakota: See also C (c), Local taxation.

Tennessee: See A (d), District boards and officers.

Texas: See A (d), District boards and officers; K (b), Free textbooks.

Vermont: See A (a), Administration and supervision, general.

Washington: Amending sec. 4657, Remington and Ballinger's Annotated Codes and Statutes, relating to school elections.

Provides that upon petition of 25 per cent of the legal electors of any district, county superintendent may change the date of election therein to any other day within the first seven days of March. Ch. 117, Mar. 17, 1915.

West Virginia: See S (a), Public libraries.

Wisconsin: Amending sec. 425 of the statutes, relating to the date for the annual school-district meeting.

Has effect of requiring meetings in all school districts to be held on the first Monday in July, unless the same be a holiday, in which case meeting held on following day. Ch. 367, July 8, 1915.

Wisconsin: Amending sec. 425, subsec. 3 of sec. 431a, subsec. 2 of sec. 490, sec. 495-9, sec. 496p, subsec. 1 of sec. 496-1, and subsec. 2 of sec. 516 of the statutes relating to time of calling meetings of school districts.

Has effect of having polls at school elections of different kinds open until 8 o'clock in the evening. Ch. 181, May 28, 1915.

Wisconsin: Amending sec. 425, Wisconsin Statutes, relating to annual and special school-district meetings.

Regulates holding of such meetings. Ch. 135, Apr. 26, 1917.

Wisconsin: Amending sec. 427, Wisconsin Statutes, relating to special school district meetings.

Not more than two such meetings may be held in any one year. In district including all or part of a city or incorporated village, notice of meeting may be published in a newspaper. Ch. 438, June 15, 1917.

Wisconsin: See also N (a), High schools.

A (f). Administrative Units—Districts, Townships, Municipalities, etc.: Formation; Divisions; Consolidation.

See also H (e), Consolidation of districts, etc.

Alabama: See A (c1), County boards.

Alaska: Providing for the organization of incorporated school districts outside of incorporated towns, for the election of a board of directors in such districts, and granting such board the power of levying and collecting taxes for the establishment and maintenance of schools; defining the powers and duties of such board and declaring an emergency. Ch. 5, Apr. 23, 1917.

Alaska: Amending sec. 324, ch. 2, Compiled Laws of Alaska, relating to the establishment and maintenance of schools for white children and children of mixed blood outside of municipalities, and repealing ch. 59, session laws, 1915.

On petition of not less than 12 citizens of proposed district, clerk of district court is authorized to establish district of not more than 40 square miles and containing not fewer than 10 persons between 6 and 20 years of age. Qualified voters to elect school board of three members. Territory to expend not less than $300 and not more than $1,800 for schoolhouse, governor to apportion funds to run school five months. Ch. 22, May 1, 1917.

Alaska: Providing for the maintenance of public schools and high schools in incorporated towns, cities, and incorporated school districts in the Territory. Ch. 28, May 2, 1917.

California: Legalizing the establishment of any school district where such district has operated as a district for one year prior to the taking effect of this act. Ch. 81, Apr. 21, 1915.

California: Legalizing school districts purporting to have been organized by the county board of supervisors and having acted as legal districts for one year. Ch. 129, Apr. 24, 1917.

California: Amending sec. 1576 of the Political Code, relating to city school districts.

In no instance shall the territory within an incorporated city of the sixth class be in more than one school district. Ch. 142, Apr. 26, 1917.

California: Amending secs. 1578 and 1579 of the Political Code, relating to the organization of elementary school districts.

Prescribes more in detail the duties of county superintendent and county board of supervisors in such organization. Ch. 486, May 14, 1917.

California: Amending sec. 1891 of the Political Code, regulating the maintenance of any school district situated in two or more counties.

Ch. 543, May 18, 1917.

California: County superintendent of county containing most children of such district shall have jurisdiction over district situated in two or more counties, but present jurisdiction shall not be changed unless voted by majority of electors of district. Ch. 545, May 18, 1917.

California: Adding sec. 1582 to the Political Code and amending sec. 1543 of the same, relating to lapsing, suspending, and reestablishing school districts and to the powers and duties of superintendents of schools.

Ch. 694, May 29, 1917.

California: See also N (a), High schools.

Colorado: Amending sec. 5908, Revised Statutes of 1908, relating to the formation of new school districts.

No such district shall be formed from other districts unless it has an area of more than 9 square miles or has an assessed valuation of over $50,000 and 40 children of school age. Ch. 120, Apr. 10, 1917.

Delaware: Amending ch. 71 of the Revised Statutes, relating to the alteration of the boundaries of school districts by union or otherwise, and making certain provisions concerning school districts so altered.

Repeals sections providing for the alteration of school districts by county school commissions and for the union of two or more districts by two-thirds vote of districts affected. On approval of State board of education, county school commission may transfer a single farm or parcel of land from one district to another or may add to a district any real estate not included in any district; such transfer may be made on commission's own motion or on petition of owner of land transferred, but 10 days' notice must be given. All other alterations of district boundaries shall be made by State board of education. On petition of five or more residents of a district, said State board shall investigate the matter of alteration and may formulate a tentative plan therefor; board shall give notice and hold a hearing on such plan; thereafter the board shall determine the matter of alteration; board may include in its plan an apportionment of property, assets, and liabilities among districts affected; board may also include provision for additional buildings, improvements, etc., and bonds of the district may be issued and tax levied to pay interest and create a sinking fund; board may also include provision for the sale of school property within the district. After board has determined upon plan of alteration, plan shall be submitted to qualified voters of each district affected; majority vote in each district is necessary to effect alteration, but if one district should vote adversely, other districts may make alteration in so far as they are concerned. After affirmative vote by districts, State board shall declare alteration made and give a number to district, which shall be a body corporate. Board of education of altered district shall consist of five members, who shall be vested with powers and duties of school boards of districts generally; board elected by qualified voters. By majority vote of the voters, indebtedness may be incurred for buildings, equipment, etc.; a site may be acquired by condemnation proceedings; local board may sell real or personal property not needed; it may levy a district tax sufficient to raise not less than $100 nor more than $900 per teacher, such amount in addition to $100 to be voted by qualified voters except where board of original district was authorized to levy a greater amount than $100. Outside of school hours schoolhouse may be used for any educational

public purpose. Term of members of board of education, five years, one retiring each year. State funds shall be apportioned to altered districts as to others, but apportionment to altered district shall not be reduced to amount less than that received prior to alteration. When new building, improvements, or equipment is deemed necessary in an altered district, State board may allow State aid for the same to the extent of 20 per cent of the cost, but no district shall be allowed more than $2,000 and the aggregate annual amount allowed shall not exceed $10,000. State board may allow an altered district maintaining a high school not exceeding $1,000 a year, but not more than $5,000 a year may be allowed for this purpose. Ch. 164, Mar. 12, 1915.

Idaho: See H (e), Consolidation of districts, etc.; N (a), High schools.

Indiana: Authorizing the conveyance of property of civil townships corresponding to school townships. Ch. 70, Mar. 6, 1915.

Indiana: Providing for the consolidation of township schools with the schools of a town or town in the township. Ch. 23, Acts of 1917.

Indiana: Authorizing school corporations to sell lands purchased for experimental purposes. Ch. 110, Acts of 1917.

Indiana: Providing for the assumption of a proportionate part of the indebtedness of cities, towns, or townships and the purchase of school property belonging to school cities, school towns of school townships when territory belonging thereto shall be annexed by any other city, township, or incorporated town. Ch. 121, Mar. 8, 1917.

Indiana: **See also N (a), High schools.**

Iowa: **Relating to the formation of independent school districts.**

Authorizes a subdistrict containing a village of 75 or more inhabitants to organize an independent district. School laws, 1915, p. 95.

Iowa: See also H (e), Consolidation of districts, etc.

Kansas: Amending sec. 7398, General Statutes of 1909, providing for the organization of joint school districts situated in two or more counties. Ch. 303, Mar. 11, 1915.

Kansas: Providing for the disorganization of certain school districts and attachment of territory to other districts.

District to be disorganized. if for a period of three years it fails to maintain school seven months each year, unless it sends its children to adjoining district. Ch. 275, Mar. 12, 1917.

Kansas: See also N (a), **High schools.**

Kentucky: Providing for a commission form of government for schools in cities of the fourth class, to become effective in such cities upon its acceptance by the governing authorities of such cities and the schools therein, and providing method of adoption. Ch. 59, Mar. 23, 1916.

Louisiana: See A (a), Administration and supervision, general.

Michigan: Providing for the dissemination, publication, and distribution to school districts of pamphlets, documents, books, and circulars written, compiled, published, or prepared by any department of the State government, or by any institution maintained in whole or in part by the State. Act No. 265, May 17, 1915.

Michigan: Amending secs. 3307, 3308, 3321, 3324, and 3328, Compiled Laws of 1915, relating to the incorporation of cities.

Provides for "home rule" for cities; authorizes cities to adopt charters within specified restrictions. Among other things, charter may provide for necessary departments, but these provisions shall not be construed to extend to and include public schools. Act No. 6, Mar. 9, 1917.
(See also Act No. 232, May 10, 1917.)

Michigan: Amending sec. 5784, Compiled Laws of 1915, relating to the organization of graded school districts.

Qualified electors of a school district having more than 75 children betwee the ages of 5 and 20 may vote to organize a graded school district. Board of education composed of five members. Act No. 15. Mar. 22, 1917.

Michigan: Providing for the consolidation of school districts in territory annexed to cities with school districts of such cities.

Such annexation to be effected when the governing bodies of such distric and of the city school district so determine by resolution duly adopted. Act No. 18. Mar. 29, 1917.

Michigan: Classifying all school districts which have a population of 500 or more and less than 75,000 as districts of the third or fourth class; providing for the government, control, and administration of such school districts and the schools therein through boards of education; providing for the manner of nomination and election of such boards and their power and duties; repealing all general and special conflicting laws.

Districts of 500 to 12,000 population are districts of the fourth class; 12,000 to 75,000 population, districts of the third class. Act No. 166, May 2, 1917.

Minnesota: Permitting the annexation for city and school purposes of incorporated villages to cities of the third class operating under a home-rule charter adjoining such villages. (Caption.) Ch. 32, Mar. 12, 1915.

Minnesota: Granting the right of appeal to parties aggrieved by the action of the county board in setting off part of one school district and attaching such part to another district. Ch. 113, Apr. 12. 1915.

Minnesota: See also H (e), Consolidation of districts, etc.

Mississippi: Amending sec. 4514, ch. 125, of the Code of 1906 so as to provide for interstate-line schools. Ch. 184, Apr. 7, 1916.

Mississippi: Amending secs. 4526 and 4527 of the Mississippi Code of 1906; ch. 101 of the laws of 1908; ch. 12 of the laws of 1911; ch. 129 of the laws of 1912; and chs. 192, 193, and 194 of the laws of 1914, to provide for the organization and maintenance of separate districts, tax levy, bond issue, transportation into separate districts, election and duties of trustees.

Any municipality by ordinance of the mayor and board of aldermen, or any unincorporated district having $200,000 of taxable property or any unincorporated district of not less than 16 square miles, by county school board on petition of a majority of the qualified electors, may be organized into a separate school district and may levy taxes, issue bonds, etc., but school must be maintained therein for not less than seven months. On petition of a majority of the qualified electors of territory proposed to be added, county school board may add such territory to a municipal separate district with approval of trustees thereof; mayor and aldermen may release territory from municipal separate district, on petition of a majority of electors of territory released. In municipal separate district mayor and aldermen shall levy a tax for the support of schools, and may levy tax or issue bonds to provide buildings and equipment; property in added territory subject to taxation as that within municipality. For rural separate district, county board of supervisors shall, on petition of majority of electors of such district, levy tax therein; likewise bonds may be issued; county assessor shall assess such taxes and county collector shall collect the same and pay to county treasurer; funds paid out by order of district trustees on pay certificates issued by county superintendent. Provision made for the consolidation of two or more municipal separate school districts. With consent of trustees of separate district, child of county district may attend school in separate district and county shall pay tuition equal to average cost per child in county. Transportation of pupils of county school district to separate district may be provided on petition of majority of electors of county district and with approval of trustees of separate district. Five trustees in municipal separate district appointed by mayor and aldermen in rural separate district appointed by county superintendent, but said superintendent must appoint trustees named by majority of qualified electors. Ch. 186, Apr. 6, 1916.

Missouri: Adding sec. 10836a to Revised Statutes, 1909, providing for the annexation of unorganized territory to adjacent school districts.

S. B. 24, p. 508, Mar. 27, 1917.

Missouri: Amending secs. 3 and 5 of "An act to provide for the organization of consolidated schools and rural high schools, and to provide State aid for such schools, with an emergency clause," approved Mar. 14, 1913.

In forming consolidated district, no district shall be left with less than 8 square miles of territory and 20 children of school age or an assessed valuation of $50,000 and 20 children of school age. S. B. 456, p. 509, Mar. 27, 1917.

Missouri: Prohibiting the formation or division of districts with a valuation of less than $50,000 and an enumeration of less than 20 pupils of school age, or 8 square miles of territory and 20 persons of school age.

S. B. 457, Mar. 27, 1917.

Missouri: Authorizing any city of over 75,000 and less than 500,000 population to annex to city school district the territory of a common school district situated within the corporate limits of such city.

H. B. 482, p. 517, Apr. 9, 1917.

Montana: Amending sec. 406, ch. 76, Session Laws of 1913, providing the method of changing boundaries of school districts.

Requires county superintendent to act within not less than 10 nor more than 30 days on petition to change boundaries; requires that territory of any district be contiguous. Ch. 112, Mar. 8, 1915.

Nebraska: Permitting the organization of county rural school districts.

All school districts, except those in cities of over 1,500 inhabitants, in any county of less than 7,000 population may be discontinued and their territory organized into one county rural school district, but any district containing an incorporated village may be excluded from county district on petition of a majority of the qualified voters of such village district. On petition of 25 per cent of qualified electors, election shall be called to determine question of organizing such county district and majority vote shall carry such election. If proposition is adopted, an election shall be held on second Monday of following June to elect a county district board of education. Such district shall be a body corporate with powers of school districts not inconsistant with this act. Board of education shall consist of five members elected by voters at large, but one elected from each of five wards; term, six years, two or one as the case requires being elected every two years. County treasurer shall be treasurer of the county school district. General powers of board: (1) To establish an efficient system of schools in the district; (2) to prepare a budget of expenses and county commissioners shall levy a tax in such district to raise amount indicated in budget, but levy shall not exceed 25 mills on the dollar, in addition to tax levied for buildings and equipment (exclusive of bond tax), which shall not exceed 5 mills; (3) to acquire and hold real estate and provide buildings and equipment; (4) to prescribe and change boundaries of subdistricts and to purchase all necessary apparatus, supplies, stationery, texts, reference and other works and shall furnish the same free for use of all pupils and teachers. Qualified electors of subdivision shall elect a subdistrict board of three members; term, three years, one elected each year. Duties of subdistrict board: To recommend and supervise repairs and improvements; be custodians of school property; elect teachers; represent the people with right to be heard before county board. County rural school board shall pay the free high-school tuition of any pupil residing within the district who is over 3½ miles from a school maintained in the county district in which the grades for which said pupil is eligible are maintained. Qualified electors may, by majority vote, vote bonds for the purchase of sites and erection of buildings. On petition of 30 per cent or more of the qualified electors of at least two-thirds of the townships, board shall call an election to determine question of discontinuing the county district and returning to old system of district; majority of votes cast shall carry such election. Ch. 233, Apr. 14, 1915.

Nebraska: Amending sec. 6814, Revised Statutes, 1913, as amended by ch. 119, Acts of 1915, and amending sec. 6815, Revised Statutes, 1913, relating to tuition of nonresident pupils.

Tuition to remain at $1 per week. District where pupil resides at time of application for payment of his or her tuition must pay the same. Tax to be levied therefor. Ch. 124, Mar. 28, 1917.

Nebraska: Amending sec. 6948, Revised Statutes, 1913, relating to schools in cities of over 1,500 inhabitants.

Territory embraced within limits of an incorporated city or village having 1,000 or more inhabitants shall, with other territory attached thereto, constitute a single school district. (Formerly applied to those of 1,500 inhabitants or more.) Ch. 128, Apr. 25, 1917.

Nebraska: Providing for the organization, maintenance, etc., of public schools in cities having a population of over 40,000 and less than 100,000.

Applies to city of Lincoln. Ch. 225, Apr. 25, 1917.

Nebraska: See also H (e), Consolidation of districts, etc.

Nevada: Regulating the fiscal management of counties, cities, towns, school districts, and other governmental agencies.

Every such agency and the governing boards thereof are deemed to be governmental agencies of the State. Budget system provided. Ch. 149, Mar. 22, 1917.

Nevada: Regulating the formation of new school districts by county commissioners. Ch. 200, Mar. 24, 1917.

Nevada: Providing for abolishing any school district having fewer than three census children, unless such district has two pupils in attendance and has funds to its credit to maintain the school. Ch. 202, Mar. 24, 1917.

Nevada: See also H (e), Consolidation of districts, etc.; N (a), High schools.

New Jersey: Joint resolution for the appointment of a commission for the investigation of the methods employed and the laws which govern the financing of municipal, school district, and county affairs. J. R. No. 7, Mar. 18, 1916.

New Jersey: Amending sec. 118 of "An act to establish a thorough and efficient system of public schools," etc., approved Oct. 19, 1903.

Permits pupil living remote from the public school of his home district to attend a school in an adjoining district, with approval of county superintendent. Tuition fee as fixed by county superintendent, if districts do not reach agreement thereon. Said fee to be paid by home district of pupil. Ch. 159, Mar. 27, 1917.

New Mexico: See A (c1), County boards.

New York: Amending the education law, in relation to a change in supervisory districts.

The superintendents of two or more supervisory districts may petition the board of supervisors of the county for a change of boundaries of such districts. Ch. 238, Apr. 17, 1916.

North Carolina: Providing for the enlargement of graded school districts in incorporated towns.

Provides for including in such school district territory contiguous to, but outside the corporate limits of, the town. Ch. 104, Mar. 1, 1917.

North Carolina: Amending secs. 4129, 4141, and 4145, Revisal of 1905, and ch. 820, Acts of 1907; ch. 135, Acts of 1911; ch. 149, Acts of 1913, and chs. 55, 236 and 147, Acts of 1915, all relating to schools.

Miscellaneous amendments: County board of education may divide townships or entire county or part thereof into school districts; may redistrict county and consolidate schools. County superintendent required to report monthly to county board of education. Members of school district boards must be of good moral character. State board of education may reserve not exceeding $500 to pay part of expenses connected with State high-school inspection. County boards of education of two contiguous counties may transfer children from district of one county to another. There must be an average daily attendance of 20 pupils for each additional teacher in a one-teacher school. County board of education authorized to set aside additional contingent fund for home demonstration and club work. Salary of chief clerk in State department of education increased to $2,000. Ch. 285, Mar. 7, 1917.

North Carolina: See also B (e), State aid for elementary education.

North Dakota: Amending sec. 1147, Compiled Laws of 1913, relating to the organization of new common school districts.

Provides for the organization from other districts of a new district on petition of three-fourths of school voters of proposed district, if such district has at least $120,000 of property valuation and comprises territory not less than a major fraction of a congressional township and if district from which it is formed is left with not less than $150,000 of property valuation and an area not less than a congressional township. Ch. 185, Mar. 13, 1915.

North Dakota: Amending sec. 1146, Compiled Laws, 1913, relating to changing school district boundaries.

On petition of a majority of the school voters residing in the districts affected county commissioners and county superinendent shall submit to voters the question of changing boundaries of districts.
S. B. 33, p. 244, Pop. Ed., Mar. 1, 1917.

North Dakota: Providing method of changing names of school districts.

Name changed by vote of qualified electors.
S. B. 97, p. 251, Pop. Ed., Feb. 28, 1917.

Ohio: Amending sec. 4740 of the General Code, relating to the supervision of village and rural schools.

Any village or rural district or union of districts for high-school purposes which maintains a first-grade high school and which employs a superintendent shall, upon application to the county board of education before June 1 of any year, be continued as a separate district under the direct supervision of the county superintendent. Such district shall continue under the supervision of county superintendent until the board of education thereof shall petition to become a part of a supervision district of the county. Such superintendents shall perform duties prescribed for a district superintendent, but shall teach such part of the day as school board of district or districts may direct. Such districts shall receive no State aid for the payment of the salaries of their superintendents. S. B. No. 323, p. 439, June 2, 1915.

Ohio: Amending certain sections of the General Code, relating to the administration of public education.

County board of education to divide county into school supervision districts, each such district not to have fewer than 30 teachers. Any village or centralized rural district or union of districts for high-school purposes may remain a separate district if it employs a superintendent. Salary of county superintendent fixed by county board at not less than $1,200 per annum; State to pay half of said salary, but not exceeding $1,000. Minimum salaries of teachers—elementary teachers without previous teaching experience, $50 per month; one year's professional training, $55; teacher having completed two years' course in approved normal school or teachers' college, $60; high-school teachers, not to exceed an average of $80 in each district levying maximum tax to pay said minimum salaries. If district board fails to levy necessary tax, county commissioners shall levy the same in the district. Provision for the classification of high schools and for junior high schools. Boards of two or more districts may unite their districts for high-school purposes. Textbooks to be recommended by county superintendent and district superintendents. Transportation of pupils provided for. Tuition of pupils eligible to high school shall be paid by district if no high school is maintained by district. Professional training for one-year and three-year certificates.
S. B. No. 289, p. 621, Mar. 31, 1917.

Ohio: See also A (c2), County officers.

Oklahoma: Amending sec. 3, art. 16, ch. 219, Acts of 1913, relating to the transfer of pupils and funds from one district to another.

Permits any person interested in transfer to appeal to county commissioners from the action of the county superintendent in making or refusing transfer. Ch. 16, Feb. 9, 1915.

Oklahoma: Regulating the transfer of pupils from one district to another and providing the method of payment therefor. Ch. 243, Feb. 27, 1917.

Oklahoma: See also H (e), Consolidation of districts, etc.

Oregon: See N (a), High schools.

Pennsylvania: Amending secs. 106, 107, 109, 116, 212, and 301 of the School Code of 1911, and adding sec. 2518 to said code, relating to the classification of school districts.

Amendments provide that when two districts are united and their combined population entitles the united district to a different classification, such classification shall be made by the State superintendent. (Sec. 2518.) When two districts are united and each maintains a public school library, the boards of library trustees shall be merged into one. Act No. 270, May 28, 1915.

Pennsylvania: Amending secs. 106 and 107 of the School Code, relating to changing a school district from one class to a higher class.

When territory is annexed to a school district, such district may have census taken of such territory to determine if combined population of district and annexed territory entitles district to a new classification. Act No. 333, July 17, 1917.

Pennsylvania: See also N (a), High schools.

South Carolina: See N (a), High schools.

South Dakota: Repealing ch. 195, Acts of 1913, providing for the education of Indian children on land opened for settlement. Ch. 168, Feb. 23, 1915.

South Dakota: Amending sec. 69, ch. 135, Acts of 1907, providing manner of dividing school districts. Ch. 171, Mar. 2, 1915.

South Dakota: An act relating to education in unorganized counties, attaching such counties to organized counties for school purposes, providing for a common-school system in and a board of education and county superintendent for schools in unorganized counties. Ch. 222, Mar. 2, 1917.

South Dakota: Defining independent school districts. Ch. 224, Mar. 10, 1917.

Texas: Amending sec. 50a, ch. 100, acts of 1911, so as to authorize boards of county school trustees to create county-line districts and prescribing the manner whereby such districts may be created. Ch. 196, Apr. 4, 1917.

Utah: See A (c1), County boards; C (c), Local taxation.

Vermont: See A (a), Administration and supervision, general; P (a), Higher institutions, general.

Washington: Relating to the transfer of territory from one school district to another; amending sec. 4433 of Remington and Ballinger's Annotated Codes and Statutes.

Provides that county superintendents may without petition but after giving a hearing, transfer a school district of the third class having no high school to a district of the second class which has a high school and which bounds said third-class district on three sides. Ch. 50, Mar. 9, 1915.

West Virginia: See H (e), Consolidation, etc., of districts.

Wisconsin: Amending secs. 412a, 430–8, 435a, 439cb, 490, 490a, subsecs. 1 and 2 of sec. 490b, sec. 469q, subsecs. 1 and 3 of sec. 496–1, sec. 496–3, sec. 496–6, sec. 496–12, and sec 513 of the statutes, eliminating therefrom certain words,

phrases, and clauses relating specifically to the township system of school government which was abolished by ch 388, Acts of 1911.
Ch. 620, Aug. 23, 1915.

Wisconsin: Amending sec. 417 of the statutes, relating to the name of school districts.

Permits districts organized into a village or city to take name of such municipality. Ch. 417, July 20, 1915.

Wisconsin: Amending sec. 430f, Wisconsin statutes, regulating the powers and duties of school district electors.

Duty of electors in district having a one-room school to authorize an additional room and teacher when attendance for 20 days is 60 or more. (Was 65 in amended section.) Ch. 157, May 5, 1917.

Wisconsin: Adding subsecs. 4 and 5 to sec. 925–113a, Wisconsin Statutes, relating to school government.

Relates to change of school district of city of fourth class to ordinary district system. Provides for organization after such change.
Ch. 172, May 4, 1917.

Wisconsin: Renumbering and rearranging certain sections of the statutes, relating to public instruction and to cultural and memorial institutions.
Ch. 453. June 19, 1917.

Wisconsin: Repealing secs. 412, 412a, 413, 414, 415, 416, 418, 419, 419a to 419h, inclusive, 420, and 422, and creating secs. 412, 413, 416, 418, 419, and 420, Wisconsin statutes regulating the formation of school districts.
Ch. 497 June 26, 1917.

Wisconsin: Renumbering and rearranging numerous sections of the statutes, relating to the common schools. Ch. 578, July 5, 1917.

Wisconsin: See also A (cl), County boards.

B. STATE FINANCE AND SUPPORT.

(a) General.

B (b). State School Lands.

Alabama: Authorizing the State superintendent of education to sell school lands, subject to the approval of the governor.
Act No. 195 p. 266, Aug. 2, 1915.

Arizona: Creating a department to be known as the State land department and creating the office of commissioner of State lands.

This act places the control of State lands, including school lands, under a department composed of the governor, secretary of state, attorney general, State treasurer, and State auditor. Lands under the control of State institutions are not included. Ch. 5, June 26, 1915.

California: Providing for the sale of unsold public-school lands suitable for cultivation. Ch. 395, May 19, 1915.

Colorado: Providing for the disposition of the rentals and royalties from certain State lands.

Rents and royalties from stone, coal, oil, gas, gold, silver, or other mineral on State lands shall be paid into the proper permanent fund. School-land products to go to school fund. Ch. 108, Mar. 16, 1917.

Idaho: Amending sec. 1580, Revised Codes of Idaho, as last amended by ch. 14, acts of 1915, extending the time of payment on existing and future contracts for the purchase of State lands. Ch. 100, Feb. 28, 1917.

Indiana: Authorizing county auditors to execute quit-claim deeds in certain instances in order to correct and perfect the titles of the owners of lands in school sections. Ch. 15, Feb. 22, 1915.

Iowa: Making provision for the settlement of all liabilities of the State growing out of the sale of lands of the Des Moines River improvement grant as school lands. Ch. 278, Apr. 21, 1917.

Kansas: Providing for the survey of and determination of title to lands situated in the abandoned beds of navigable rivers, and lands which are now or which have been islands in navigable rivers and making the same school lands, and providing for the sale of all school lands, and repealing secs. 7648, 7649, 7650, 7651, 7652, 7671, 7689, 7690, and 7691, General Statutes of 1909, and chs. 274 and 295, session laws of 1913. Ch. 322, Mar. 20, 1915.

Kansas: Authorizing State auditor to issue patents to school lands where purchaser has paid the statutory price at the time of purchase.
Ch. 324, Mar. 2, 1915.

Minnesota: Amending ch. 192, Acts of 1915, relating to leasing school, university, internal improvement, and swamp lands.

Enlarges purpose for which such lands may be leased.
Ch. 31, Feb. 21, 1917.

Minnesota: Establishing a State land commission to investigate State claims to lands under congressional acts and to prepare adjustment of said claims, subject to legislation. Ch. 324, Apr. 17, 1917.

Mississippi: An act to require the boards of supervisors of the counties entitled to participate in the distribution of the 30,829.16 acres of land in Hancock County received in lieu of sixteenth sections to employ and contract with a competent person or persons to partition the said land so as to set apart and allot to each county interested therein the land of each in severalty by proper description. Ch. 140, Apr. 8, 1916.

Mississippi: Authorizing board of supervisors to buy, hold, and dispose of real property or other security pledged to any county as security for loans made from the funds arising from any disposition of the sixteenth sections of any county. Ch. 142, Feb. 29, 1916.

Missouri: Validating sales of school lands in sections numbered 16 or lands selected in lieu thereof. S. B. 5, p. 327, Mar. 23, 1917.

Montana: Authorizing the State land board to contract and agree with the United States for the waiver of the State's right to unsurveyed school sections in forest reserves and to accept lands in lieu thereof, and validating agreements heretofore made for that purpose. Ch. 81, Mar. 5, 1915.

Nebraska: To amend sec. 5855, Revised Statutes for 1913, relating to whom educational lands may be sold, to provide that any county board may purchase such lands for agricultural fair purposes, when not used for agricultural purposes to revert back to the State of Nebraska, and to repeal said original section. Ch. 103, Apr. 12, 1915.

Nebraska: Fixing and defining the boundaries of school lands belonging to the State included in the survey made under an act of Congress approved August 9, 1894, in Grant and Hooker Counties. Ch. 230, Apr. 9, 1915.

Nebraska: Authorizing the State board of educational lands and funds to exchange any educational lands within the limits of any United States forest reserve in the State for lands of equal acreage and value held by the United

States Government in such reserves, and providing for leasing such lands thus acquired. Ch. 212, Apr. 19, 1917.

New Mexico: Authorizing the commissioner of public lands to exchange with the United States certain school lands in the Fort Bliss target-range reservation. Ch. 35, Mar. 9, 1917.

North Carolina: Vesting in the State board of education lands which have been sold for taxes and the title thereto acquired by the State.
Ch. 209, Mar. 6, 1917.

North Dakota: Authorizing board of university and school lands to transfer school or institutional lands for any of the purposes over which the right of eminent domain may be exercised. Ch. 242, Feb. 27, 1915,

North Dakota: Amending secs. 284 and 288, Compiled Laws, 1913, relating to the board of university and school lands.

Board to consist of governor, secretary of state, State auditor, attorney general, and superintendent of public instruction.
S. B. 212, p. 251, Pop. Ed., Mar. 1, 1917.

North Dakota: See also C (b), Local bonds and indebtedness.

Ohio: To provide for the better administration of the school and ministerial lands held in trust by the State, to codify the laws relating thereto, to safeguard both the trust and the rights of the citizens of Ohio holding leasehold or fee simple titles in or to said lands, and to make more certain the rights and obligations of the State and the lessees of said lands.
H. B. No. 192, p. 357, Mar. 28, 1917.

Oklahoma: Amending sec. 7660, Revised Laws, 1910, relating to the distribution of section 13 funds.

Said section 13 lands granted by the United States for the benefit of institutions of higher learning of the State. Act provides for the division of proceeds of said lands among said institutions. Ch. 249, Mar. 31, 1917.

Oklahoma: Regulating the leasing of school and other public lands owned by the State for oil and gas purposes. Ch. 253, Mar. 30, 1917.

Oregon: Providing that funds derived from United States forest reserves in the State shall be distributed to the counties wherein such reserves are situated and one-fourth thereof devoted to the public schools.
Ch. 269, Feb. 19, 1917.

South Dakota: Regulating the leasing of school lands.
Ch. 339, Mar. 2, 1917.

South Dakota: Regulating the sale of school lands.
Ch. 340, Feb. 27, 1917.

South Dakota: See also B (e), State aid for elementary education.

Texas: Providing that commissioners' courts may sell county school lands and invest the proceeds in certain bonds. Ch. 136, Mar. 30, 1915.

Utah: Amending sec. 2336, compiled laws, 1907, relating to the sale of public lands of the State.

Prescribes manner of such sale and fixes amount that may be sold to one person, company, or corporation. Ch. 102, Mar. 15, 1917.

Washington: Amending sec. 6681, Remington and Ballinger's Annotated Codes and Statutes, relating to the leasing of school and granted lands.

Reduces from six to five years the maximum term for which such lands may be leased. Ch. 147, Mar. 18, 1915.

Wyoming: Exempting State and school lands sold under contract, together with the equity and possessory right of the purchases, from taxation, until right to deed becomes absolute. Ch. 52, Feb. 23, 1915.

Wyoming: An act requiring the payment of one-fourth of the moneys received by the State from the leasing of the lands now remaining undistributed, donated to the State for State charitable, educational, penal, and reformatory institutions by the act of Congress of July 10, 1890, to the treasurer of the board of trustees of the university, for the maintenance and upbuilding of that institution, and directing the placing of the amounts received from the sale of any such lands in a permanent land fund, and as to the investment of the same and the expenditure of the income therefrom. Directing as to the use of the remaining three-fourths of such funds, subject to expenditure, by the Board of Charities and Reform, for the maintenance and upbuilding of the State charitable, and penal and reformatory institutions. Ch. 142, Mar. 3, 1915.

B (c). Permanent State School Funds: Composition and Investment.

Arizona: Amending sec. 111, ch. 5, acts of second special session, 1915, relating to the investment of State funds.

May be invested in first mortgages on farm lands. Loan must not exceed one-half (was one-third) of value of lands. Ch. 12, Mar. 3, 1917.

Colorado: Regulating the investment of the public-school funds.

School funds, permanent or income, unless otherwise disposed of by law, shall be invested as follows:

(1) In interest-bearing warrants of the State.
(2) In bonds by the State.
(3) By loans on unincumbered cultivated farm lands.
(4) In bonds of school districts.
(5) In bonds of the "several counties, cities, town or city, and city and and counties" of the State.

(Initiated act. Adopted by referendum vote, Nov. 7, 1916.)

Connecticut: Relating to the investment of the school fund.

The State treasurer is directed to collect prior to July 1, 1925, all loans made outside of the State; no further loans shall be made outside of the State.
Ch. 161, Apr. 28, 1915.

Minnesota: Empowering the governor, attorney general, and State auditor to enter into agreement with persons, copartnerships, and corporations for the purpose of mining and disposing of iron ore situate under the waters of any public lake or river within the State, and providing for the disposal of all funds arising from such sale.

Principal of funds so derived shall be added to the permanent school fund.
Ch. 110, Mar. 16, 1917.

Minnesota: See also B (b), State school lands.

Mississippi: An act to amend sec. 4703, Mississippi Code of 1906, relative to the investment of funds derived from any disposition of sixteenth section lands.

Such funds shall be loaned for not exceeding five years at not less than 6 per cent interest on real estate of at least twice the value of loan. Funds may also be loaned for not exceeding 20 years to trustees of agricultural high schools. Ch. 229, Apr. 8, 1916.

Missouri: Providing for the acceptance of grants, devices, bequests, donations, and assignments to the State and the collection thereof, and providing that the same may be appropriated to educational purposes.
S. B. 578, p. 409, Mar. 20, 1915.

Montana: Authorizing and empowering the State land board to invest the income derived from common school funds in interest-bearing warrants upon the general fund of the State. Ch. 103, Mar. 8, 1915.

Montana: Authorizing the investment of the permanent funds of the State in Federal farm loan bonds. Ch. 4, Feb. 6, 1917.

Montana: Providing for the safe investment of the State permanent common-school funds and all other permanent State educational, charitable, and penal institution funds. Ch. 124, Mar. 7, 1917.

Nebraska: Amending sec. 5846, Revised Statutes, 1913, so as to provide for the investment of the permanent educational funds in bonds of irrigation districts and of the Federal Land Bank, organized under act of Congress of June 28, 1916. Ch. 113, Apr. 25, 1917.

Nevada: Creating a State board of investment of the State permanent-school fund. Ch. 212, Mar. 24, 1917.

North Dakota: Amending sec. 287, compiled laws of 1913, providing for the investment of State school funds. Ch. 241, Mar. 9, 1915.

North Dakota: Amending sec. 287, Compiled Laws, 1913, relating to the investment of school funds.

Regulates the investment of such funds in first mortgages on farm lands.
S. B. 98, p. 194, Pop. Ed., Mar. 9, 1917.

North Dakota: Proposing an amendment to the constitution, relating to the investment of the school fund.

Such fund to be invested only in bonds of school corporations, counties, townships, and municipalities within the State in drainage bonds, United States bonds, North Dakota bonds, and in first mortgages on farm lands.
H. B. 165, p. 119 Pop. Ed., Mar. 12, 1917.

Oregon: Amending sec. 3914, Lord's Oregon Laws, as last amended by ch. 259, Acts of 1913, regulating the investment of the permanent school fund, university fund, and agricultural-college fund. Ch. 148, Feb. 15, 1917.

South Carolina: Amending sec. 1702, Code of 1912, so as to authorize the State treasurer to invest the permanent school fund in bonds of counties, school districts, and municipalities within the State. No. 193, May 9, 1917.

Vermont: To restore the permanent-school funds of 1825.

Provides for restoring to the permanent school fund by the year 1925 the sum of $234,900.42, which was made the property of the State in the year 1845.
No. 352 (J. Res.), Mar. 19, 1915.

Vermont: Providing that fees received from peddlers' licenses and from licensing circuses and menageries shall be granted to the trustees of the permanent school fund to be distributed for school purposes as the income from said fund is distributed. Act No. 63, Mar. 15, 1915.

Vermont: Relating to the disposition of unclaimed deposits in savings banks and trust companies.

Such deposits to be paid to State treasurer to become a part of the permanent school fund. Act No. 152, Apr. 2, 1915.

Vermont: Empowering the trustees of the permanent school fund to receive and hold funds in trust. No. 63, Apr. 7, 1917.

Vermont: See also A (a), Administration and supervision, general.

Virginia: Amending ch. 252, Acts of 1906, as amended by ch. 82, Acts of 1908, and ch. 359, Acts of 1914, relating to the literary (permanent school) fund.

Provides for loaning such fund to school boards at 3 per cent interest for sums less than $3,000 and 4 per cent for sums in excess of that; State board of education to administer loan, which is to be secured by lien on property; tax to pay interest and principal required; school property of district must be insured.
Ch. 187, Mar. 16, 1916.

Wisconsin: Regulating the investment of the common-school fund, the normal-school fund, the university fund, and the agricultural-college fund.
Ch. 536, June 28, 1917.

Wyoming: A joint resolution proposing to amend sec. 6 of art. 7 of the constitution of the State of Wyoming, relating to the investment of the funds belonging to the State for public-school purposes.

Proposes to permit the investment of such funds in "first mortgages on farm land or such other securities as may be authorized by law" (in addition to bonds of school districts, counties, the State, and the United States).
H. J. R. No. 2, p. 264, Feb. 15, 1915.

B (d). State Taxation for School Purposes.

Colorado: See G (b), State normal schools; P (b), Finance, lands, supports; P (c), State universities; Q (b), Agricultural colleges; Q (d), Mining schools.

Delaware: Appropriating to the use of the public schools $250,000 annually from money raised by income tax. Ch. 8, Apr. 3, 1917.

Illinois: See F (c), Teachers' pensions.

Indiana: Amending sec. 1 and repealing sec. 3, ch. 181, Acts of 1913, relating to State tax for general fund, benevolent-institution fund, State-debt sinking fund, and State educational-institution fund.

Reduces from 7 cents to 4 cents on the hundred dollars the State tax for the general fund. Repeals section 3 providing a tax of 1¼ cents on the hundred dollars for a "State debt sinking fund" and transfers moneys in said fund to general fund, except $340,000 which shall be held to pay the State's debt to Purdue University when authority to pay said debt is obtained from the United States Congress. Ch. 98, Mar. 7, 1917.

Indiana: See also O (a), Industrial education, general.

Michigan: Providing a tax to meet the amounts disbursed by the State for the several State hospitals, the Michigan Home and Training School, and the Eloise Hospital, for the support of patients under the several laws relating thereto. Act No. 20, Mar. 25, 1915.

Minnesota: See F (c), Teachers' pensions.

Missouri: Appropriating for the support of the public schools one-third of the ordinary revenue paid into the State treasury.
H. B. 2, p. 89, Feb. 12, 1915.

New Mexico: Relating to revenues for the public schools.

Provides a State tax of one-half of 1 mill on the dollar of taxable property, which shall be added to the current school fund; State superintendent shall make quarterly apportionment of current school fund to counties on basis of number of children of school age. School directors of rural school districts and boards of education of municipal districts shall provide necessary sites, buildings, furniture, and fuel and for the payment of teachers' wages and interest on school bonds and the redemption thereof, and for other necessary expenses. Boards of directors of rural districts shall annually submit estimates of amounts needed to county superintendent; municipal boards shall submit such estimates to county commissioners; such commissioners shall review estimates of both rural and municipal districts and make levies accordingly, but aggrieved district may appeal from decision of commissioners to district court, whose decision shall be final; county superintendent shall pass upon rural district estimates before their submission to commissioners, and in case directors submit no estimates said superintendent shall make the same. County commissioners shall annually levey a county tax which, with other revenues provided by law, shall be sufficient to maintain schools for nine months in municipal districts and rural districts having graded schools of four or more teachers and to maintain schools for seven, eight, or nine months in other rural districts, according to district estimates submitted. The amount expended by any rural district where no such graded school is maintained shall not for all purposes, except for buildings, exceed in any year $60 per month for teacher holding third-grade certificate, nor $75 for teacher holding second grade, nor $90 for teacher holding first grade. Such special school tax shall not exceed 18 mills on the dollar of assessed valuation of the county. Commissioners shall annually levy a tax in each district to pay for site, building, and equipment, and interest on and principal of bonds; such taxes for municipal districts shall be turned over to treasurers thereof; county treasurer shall be custodian of rural district funds, which shall be paid out on warrants of two members of board of directors and approval of county superintendent. Ch. 79, Mar. 16, 1915.

North Dakota: Repealing sec. 1417, Compiled Laws of 1913, as amended by ch. 148, Acts of 1913, and amending sec. 1415, Compiled Laws of 1913, and secs. 1416, 1418, and 1419, Compiled Laws of 1913 as amended by ch. 148, Acts of 1913, relating to the maintenance of State educational institutions, and commonly known as the "mill tax."

Repealed section provided that county auditors should calculate the amount of said tax levy for their respective counties. Amendment to sec. 1415 adds the State Normal School at Minot to list of institutions constituting the educational system of the State. Section 1416, as amended, provides for State educational institutions a tax to produce the lump sum of $347,880 (instead of 1½ mills on the dollar). Section 1418, as amended, provides for the distribution of said lump sum in fixed sums to each State institution. Section 1419, as amended, appropriates the sums so distributed and sets forth that the intent of the act is to repeal the mill tax and substitute therefor a specific standing appropriation. Ch. 34, Mar. 11, 1915.

Tennessee: An act to provide revenue for the State of Tennessee and the counties and municipalities thereof.

Provides (among other taxes) a State tax of 50 cents on the $100 of property; 35 cents of this to be for general State purposes and 15 cents for school purposes. Ch. 101, May 11, 1915.

Tennessee: See also Q (f), Other technical and professional schools.

Texas: Proposing an amendment to the State constitution providing a State school tax of not exceeding 35 cents on the $100 of taxable property.
H. J. R. No. 27, p. 503, Mar. 19, 1917.

Utah: Proposing an amendment to the constitution of the State of Utah.

Limits State tax levy for common school to 3 mills on the dollar; limits State high school tax to ½ mill on the dollar.
S. J. R. No. 8, p. 269, Mar. 20, 1915.

Utah: Amending sec. 2598, Compiled Laws of 1907, relating to State tax levy for district school purposes.

Reduces such levy from 3 mills on the dollar to 2⁸⁄₁₀ mills on the dollar.
Ch. 111, Mar. 22, 1915.

Utah: Amending sec. 1, ch. 29, Acts of 1911, relating to State tax levy for high-school purposes.

Reduces maximum levy allowed from ½ to ⁸⁄₁₀ of 1 mill.
Ch. 111, Mar. 22, 1915.

Vermont: See A (a), Administration and supervision, general.

Washington: See P (b), Finance, lands, support.

Wyoming: See P (c), State universities and colleges.

B (e). General Apportionment of State School Funds; Special State Aid for Elementary Education.

Alabama: Making an annual appropriation for any county that may be levying and collecting a special county school tax during any scholastic year and providing for the expenditure of the fund set apart for any county by the county board of education.

Provides $1,000 for school purposes for each county levying 1 mill on the dollar and, after October 1, 1917, $1,000 will be appropriated to each county making a 1-mill levy; $2,000 to each county making a 2-mill levy; $3,000 to each county making a 3-mill levy. Act No. 672, p. 729, Sept. 23, 1915.

Alaska: See A (f), Administrative units—districts, etc.

California: Amending sec. 443 of the Political Code, relating to the State school fund.

Increases, from $13 to $15 per pupil in average attendance, the amount which State controller shall annually transfer from general State fund to school fund. Ch. 458, May 22, 1915.

California: See also O (d), Continuation schools.

Connecticut: Concerning the support of public schools.

Divides towns having property valuation of $2,500,000 or less into five classes. First class, not more than $500,000; second class, $500,000 to $1,000,000; third class, $1,000,000 to $1,500,000; fourth class, $1,500,000 to $2,000,000; fifth class, $2,000,000 to $2,500,000. State aid to such towns: first class, 60 per cent of teachers' salaries; second class, 45 per cent; third class, 30 per cent; fourth class, 25 per cent; fifth class, 15 per cent. No increae in salaries shall exceed 10 per cent in any year in any such town. Town must expend $25 per pupil in average attendance. Ch. 371, May 16, 1917.

Connecticut: See also L (i), Manual and industrial education.

Delaware: Providing for giving meritorious recognition and awards to all free schools, not having special powers by incorporation or consolidation, that attain a certain standard of excellence and efficiency.

State board of education to make list of requirements of "standard school." Commissioner of education, president of county school commission, and county superintendent to investigate school making application and report thereon. Approved "standard school" to receive plate or other insignia and annual State aid not exceeding $50. County superintendent to report annually concerning standard schools. Ch. 184, Apr. 18, 1917.

Delaware: See also A (f), Administrative units—districts, etc.

Idaho: Amending sec. 67, ch. 159, Laws of 1911, as amended by sec. 2, ch. 13, Laws of 1912, relating to the apportionment of the State and county school funds.

New basis of apportionment: 40 per cent on basis of number of teachers employed; 40 per cent on basis of school census; 17 per cent or so much as needed to districts levying a tax of 10 mills on the dollar and still unable to maintain the required term; 3 per cent or so much as needed to rural high-school districts and consolidated districts doing approved high-school work; any balance on basis of school census. Ch. 92, Mar. 12, 1915.

Idaho: Amending sec. 67, ch. 159, Acts of 1911, as last amended by ch. 92, Acts of 1915, relating to the apportionment of State and county school funds.

No district shall be considered as having fewer than 15 census pupils. Amount which may be apportioned for each teacher in a rural high school or consolidated school doing high-school work is increased from $200 to $300.
Ch. 57, Mar. 20, 1917.

Illinois: Amending an act approved June 12, 1909, as amended, relating to the apportionment of the State school fund.

Provides for first setting aside amounts for teachers' pension fund, for salaries of county superintendents, and for paying taxes on property of any State institution situated in a school district having a population of 1,000 or less. After such amounts are set aside, remainder is apportioned to counties on the basis of number of persons under the age of 21 years.
S. B. 489, p. 719, June 28, 1917.

Iowa: See H (e), Consolidation of districts, etc.

Maine: Increasing from $40,000 to $50,000 the annual appropriation for aiding towns "wherein a rate of taxation considerably in excess of the average ate for the State fails to produce a school revenue sufficient to secure a reasonable standard of educational efficiency." Ch. 265, Mar. 31, 1915.

Maine: Amending sec. 97, ch. 15, Revised Statutes, as amended, relating to ppropriation for the schooling of children in unorganized townships.

Increases such appropriation from $23,000 to $25,000.

Ch. 73, Mar. 11, 1915.

Maine: Increasing from $25,000 to $27,000 the annual appropriation for chooling children in unorganized townships. Ch. 65, Mar. 22, 1917.

Maryland: See A (a), Administration and supervision, general.

Minnesota: Providing State aid for the public schools and for the method of its distribution.

Following State funds established: (1) "Endowment fund" consisting of income of permanent fund; (2) "Annual fund" consisting of appropriations by legislature; (3) "Current school fund" consisting of amount received from State 1-mill tax. The "endowment fund" shall be distributed semiannually to school districts whose schools have been in session at least six months in proportion to the number of pupils of school age who have attended at least 40 days. "Annual fund" shall be distributed as follows: To rural school in session at least 8 months, $150 for each teacher holding a first-class certificate; to rural school in session 7 months, $100 for each teacher holding a second-class certificate; to a graded school in session 9 months, $600 and $100 additional for each grade teacher in excess of four, including principal; to each graded school $250 additional for each high-school teacher, but aid to graded school on this basis shall not exceed $1,300 and no district, except one with 10 or more townships, shall receive aid for both a graded and a high school; to a high school in session 9 months, $1,800; to high, graded, or consolidated school maintaining industrial courses, $1,000 for agricultural course and $600 for each course in home training, manual training and commerical training, but aid shall not exceed salaries paid in the respective departments; to each high school maintaining a department for training rural teachers, $1,200; to school employing more than one teacher in such department, not exceeding $2,000; to school employing more than two teachers and having enrolled not fewer than 50 pupils in such department, not exceeding $2,800; to consolidated school of class A, $500; to consolidated school of class B, $250; to consolidated district providing transportation of pupils, amount expended for such transportation, but not exceeding $2,000; to district providing buildings for consolidated school, as much as one-fourth of cost thereof, but not exceeding $2,000; to school maintaining a library and paying an equal amount for library purposes, $10 for each teacher but not exceeding $25; to district levying in excess of 20 mills, one-third of amount raised by such excess levy, but not exceeding $2,500 to a high school, $1,800 to a graded school, or $250 for each teacher in a rural school; to rural district associated with a central consolidated school, $50; to a central consolidated school, $200 for each associated school. Distribution of "current school funds:" State auditor shall annually set aside not exceeding $150,000 for following purposes—(1) to aid a district not maintaining a State high or graded school to support its school when a levy of 15 mills does not raise $500 for each school in session 7 months, but not exceeding $200 may be expended for each such school; (2) to make up deficits arising in disbursement of annual school funds; (3) to pay the tuition of nonresident pupils attending industrial departments of State high, graded, or consolidated schools. A high-school pupil of a district providing high-school instruction shall not be entitled to free admission to high school of another district except by permission of board of such other district, or under rules of State board of education; tuition shall not exceed $250 per month; tuition shall be charged only in industrial departments in State high and graded schools. State board shall make rules relating to enrollment, attendance, tuition fees, payment of endowment and current funds. Balance of current fund shall be distributed on same basis as endowment fund. In case a State board of education is not provided for by law, the authority herein granted shall be vested in the State high-school board and the State superintendent. Ch. 296, Apr. 23, 1915.

Minnesota: Amending sec. 1, ch. 207, General Laws of 1911, as amended by ch. 279, General Laws of 1913, relating to the size of consolidated school districts and granting of aid to the same.

Amendment provides that any consolidated district containing less than sections of land, but more than 10 sections, having an assessed valuation between $200,000 and $1,000,000 and having within its limits an incorporated village, shall be entitled to State aid as a consolidated school of Class "C."
Ch. 48, Mar. 18, 1915

Minnesota: See also H (e), Consolidation of districts, etc.; L (i), Man and industrial education; S (b), Public school libraries.

Mississippi: To amend sec. 4578 of the Mississippi Code of 1906, so as to change the time for the distribution of the common school fund.

One-third distributed in October and two-thirds in January of school year.
Ch. 191, Apr. 8, 1916

Missouri: Amending sec. 10846, Revised Statutes of 1909, and adding a new section to be known as sec. 1084a, relating to State aid to common schools.

Increasing from $100 to $200 the annual State aid to districts unable to maintain school for eight months. A district having a valuation of less than $50,000 and maintaining an average attendance of less than 15 may arrange with another district for tuition of pupils and may send such pupils to other districts and pay transportation therefor; when levying maximum tax allowed by law and still unable to pay such expenses, said district may receive State aid to pay the same. S. B 261, p. 383, Mar. 24, 1915

Missouri: Amending sec. 10846, Revised Statutes, 1909, as amended, relating to the length of school term required.

State aid not to exceed $200 per school to approved district making maximum levy and still unable to maintain school eight months. Allows district to pay holder of second grade certificate $50 per month, or holder of first grade $60 per month. District employing two or more teachers, having an assessed valuation of $80,000 or less, and maintaining an average attendance of 40 or more may receive $300. H. B. 182, p. 504, Apr. 9, 1917

Missouri: Repealing sec. 8 and adding in place thereof secs. 8 and 8a of "an act to provide for the organization of consolidated schools and rural high schools, and to provide State aid for such schools, with an emergency clause."

Allows State aid of not exceeding $800 per annum for approved high school. State aid of not exceeding $200 for each elementary school to enable districts to maintain such schools eight months when maximum tax allowed by law is levied. H. B. 666, p. 495, Apr. 9, 1917

Nebraska: Amending secs. 6930 and 6931, Revised Statutes of 1913, relating to apportionment of school funds.

State school funds shall be apportioned one-fourth equally among the districts entitled to receive the same, and three-fourths to counties according to the pro rata enumeration of pupils in each county. County superintendent shall apportion one-fourth to districts equally and remaining three-fourths, together with county funds, to districts on basis of average attendance.
Ch. 122, Apr. 6, 1915

Nebraska: Amending sec. 6931, Revised Statutes, 1913, as amended by ch. 122, Acts of 1915, relating to the apportionment of school funds.

County superintendent to apportion funds to districts on the basis of enumeration last reported. (Amended law provided for apportionment on basis of average daily attendance.) Ch. 127, Mar. 23, 1917

Nebraska: See also H (e), Consolidation of districts, etc.

Nevada: Amending secs. 151 and 152, ch. 133, Acts of 1911, relating to the apportionment of State and county school funds.

State apportionment to districts: $150 for each teacher, $2.50 for each person between the ages of 6 and 18. Sum of $20,000 then to be set aside as a "State school reserve fund;" balance then to be apportioned on basis of school census. Said reserve fund to be used to aid weak counties and districts. County apportionment to districts: $225 for each teacher, $3 for each person between e ages of 6 and 18 years, balance on basis of school census. County commissioners must levy a county tax to provide funds for such apportionment. Under amended law 40 per cent of county fund was apportioned on basis of umber of teachers and remainder on basis of school census.)

Ch. 135, Mar. 20, 1917.

Nevada: See also D (c), Sanitation, etc., of schoolhouses.

New Jersey: See A (d), District boards and officers; M (c), Evening schools.

New Mexico: See A (c1), State taxation for school purposes; B (d), County oards.

New York: Amending sec. 40, ch. 62, Laws of 1909, relating to the apportionment of assessments of special franchises of water companies among school districts.

Adds water companies to corporations whose assessed valuation shall be apportioned to school districts in which property is situated.

Ch. 134, Apr. 6, 1916.
(See also ch. 323, sec. 24.)

New York: Amending the education law relative to the apportionment of moneys appropriated for the support of common schools.

Raises from 160 to 180 days the length of term upon which apportionment is based. Ch. 74, Mar. 20, 1917.

North Carolina: Amending certain sections of the Revisal of 1905 and certain chapters of the Public Laws of 1907, 1909, 1911, and 1913, all being parts of the public school law.

Revisal sec. 4086, as amended, prohibits Croatan Indians from attending white schools.

Sec. 4115. Amendment permits formation of a special tax district from portions of contiguous counties.

Sec. 4125. In all actions brought in court against a county board of education to compel the admission of children to school, said board shall be presumed to have acted correctly and burden of proof is on the complaining party to show the contrary.

Sec. 4172. After a school district has had a library for 10 years it shall be entitled to receive a second library in accordance with the provision that State shall pay $10 and county $10 to a district raising $10 for a school library.

Sec. 4167. Minor amendment as to teachers' institutes.

Sec. 4148. Requires school board to take school census annually (was biennially). Said board must also report children of compulsory attendance age.

Sec. 4158. In counties where county treasurer has been abolished banks handling school funds must make reports formerly required of treasurers.

Sec. 2786. Raises from $2 to $3 the per diem of members of county board of education.

Ch. 173, Laws of 1913. Authorizes county school board or board of trustees of any town of 2,000 or more inhabitants to extend the age limit for compulsory attendance from 12 years to 13 or to 14 years. Directs the appointment by county board of an attendance officer for each township and fixes duties of such officer; omits provision that such officer take school census. Requires cooperation of principals and teachers in enforcement of attendance law.

Ch. 820, Laws of 1907. Provides that not more than four high schools in any one county may receive State aid under this act. Omits provision fixing minimum salary of high-school teachers at $40 per month. Provides State aid of between $200 and $600 annually for each high school under this act, amount to be determined by State board of education, but local district and county must each pay at least as much as State pays.

Ch. 149, Laws of 1913. Authorizes the county board of education to set aside funds to pay the salary of an assistant county superintendent of schools. High school receiving State aid must maintain an average attendance of not less than 20 (was 10) for required term. Any amount beyond the minimum apportioned to any high school shall be conditioned, first, upon average daily attendance above the required minimum; second, upon the number of full-time high-school teachers employed; third, upon character of work of school.

Ch. 105, Laws of 1913. Minor amendment as to farm-life schools.

Ch. 835, Laws of 1907. Permits the issuance of State certificate to applicant making on examination an average of 75 per cent (was 90 per cent). Authorizes board of examiners to allow, in lieu of examination for State certificate, credits for academic and professional work done in approved institutions and for successful experiences. Authorizes board of examiners to renew State certificates and on second renewal to convert the same into life certificates. Authorizes board of examiners to allow, in lieu of examination for high-school certificate, credits for work done in approved institutions and for successful experience and to renew said certificates as State certificates may be renewed.

Ch. 33, Laws of 1913. Maximum amount of "State equalizing fund" (for equalizing school term) that may be apportioned shall be as follows: To county having total school fund (State and county) of $10,000 or less, not more than 25 per cent thereof; $10,000 to $20,000, not more than 20 per cent thereof; $20,000 to $30,000, not more than 17½ per cent; $30,000 to $50,000, not more than 16 per cent; over $50,000, not more than 15 per cent.
Ch. 236, Mar. 9, 1915.

North Dakota: Amending secs. 1439, 1440, 1441, 1443, 1445, 1446, and 1447, Compiled Laws, 1913, relating to State aid for rural schools.

Any school receiving aid under this act shall receive pupils from any part of the State. State graded schools divided into three classes; State rural schools divided into three classes. (Under amended law, each kind was divided into two classes.) Classification based on length of term, quality of teachers and principal, building and equipment, and courses offered. Graded schools: First class must have three years of high school work; second class, two years; third class, one year. Annual State aid to graded schools: First class, $100; second class, $75; third class, $50. Annual State aid to rural schools: First class, $50; second class, $40; third class, $30. If district levies between 15 and 25 mills, State aid shall be doubled for each class of school; if over 25 mills, State aid shall be trebled. Annual aid to consolidated schools: First class, $400; second class, $350; third class, $300. If tax levy is between 15 and 25 mills, State aid trebled. Provision for promotion of one class of school to a higher class.
H. B. 86, p. 96 Pop. Ed., Mar. 10, 1917.

Ohio: Amending secs. 7595 and 7595-1 of the General Code, relating to the division of school funds and salaries paid teachers in school districts receiving State aid as weak districts.

District receiving State aid shall devote at least two-thirds (was three-fourths) of maximum levy to the tuition fund. In order to be entitled to minimum salary of $45 a month, elementary teacher must have had one year of professional training (was six weeks of such training).
H. B. No. 230, p. 430, May 27, 1915.

Oklahoma: See H (c), School year, month, day, etc.

Oregon: Amending sec. 3971, Lord's Oregon Laws, relating to apportionment of county school fund.

Changes time of first apportionment from October to November.
Ch. 11, Jan. 24, 1917.

Pennsylvania: See H (g), Child labor.

Rhode Island: Amending secs. 7 and 8, ch. 65, of the General Laws, providing State aid for the purchase of works of reference and apparatus for the use of the public schools.

Increases from $4,000 to $4,500 the annual appropriation for such purpose.
Ch. 1348, Mar. 23, 1916.

Rhode Island: See also A (d), District boards and officers.

South Carolina: Providing an equalizing fund to guarantee adequate facilities and teaching corps in needy school districts. No. 43, Feb. 27, 1917.

South Carolina: See also L (j), Agriculture.

South Dakota: Providing aid for school districts in which indemnity and endowment lands are situated. Ch. 335, Feb. 13, 1917.

Tennessee: Amending secs. 2, 3, 5, and 7, ch. 264, Acts of 1909, relating to the State general education fund.

No part of said fund to be used for building purposes. Fourteen per cent of fund to be used in increasing length of school terms; no county to share in fund unless it levies at least 40 cents on the hundred dollars of taxable property and a tax of $2 on each poll; allowance to counties having school term of less than 140 days. Nine per cent of said fund to be used for high schools. Entrance requirements for normal schools are prescribed.
Ch. 130, Apr. 7, 1917.

Texas: Appropriating $1,000,000 annually for two years for the benefit of rural schools. Ch. 80, Mar. 15, 1917.

Texas: See also A (c1), County boards.

Utah: Amending sec. 1870X, Compiled Laws of 1907, as amended by ch. 8, Acts of 1909, ch. 5, Acts of 1911, and ch. 11, Acts of 1913, relating to State aid for public schools where the revenues are insufficient.

Any district of a county in which the county school levy is 4 mills and the district levy is 10 mills which is still unable to maintain school for 28 weeks in the year and pay each approved teacher $525 per annum shall be entitled to State aid to enable such district to do so. (District levy formerly required was only 5 mills.) Ch. 8, Mar. 1 ,1915.

Utah: Providing differential aid for school districts where the revenue from the State, county, and district school tax is insufficient.

State aid of amount sufficient, when added to maximum amounts available from State, county, and district sources, to enable district to pay each elementary teacher approved by the State board of education $600 for school term of at least 32 weeks, but not exceeding $20,000 annually may be so expended by the State. If said $20,000 is not sufficient to pay the sums required, the same shall be distributed pro rata. Ch. 77, Mar. 12, 1917.

Utah: See also B (d), State taxation for school purposes; M (b), Kindergartens.

Vermont: Amending sec. 175, 176, and 177, No. 64, acts of 1915, relating to the consolidated school fund, and sec. 1, No. 40, acts of 1912, relating to vocational education.

Adds fees for licenses to peddlers, auctioneers, circuses, and menageries to consolidated school fund. Adds following purposes and amounts for which such fund shall be annually apportioned: For rebates to towns for high-school tuition, $65,000; for junior and senior high schools, $10,000; for support of State normal schools, $25,000; for vocational training, $5,000; for agricultural education, $5,000; for home economics and trade education, $5,000; for boys' and girls' agricultural and industrial expositions, $1,500. State aid for manual training, home economics, and agriculture in approved high schools is provided. No. 64, Apr. 11, 1917.

Vermont: See also A (a), Administration and supervision, general.

Washington: See M (b), Kindergartens.

West Virginia: See C (c), Local taxation.

Wisconsin: Repealing sec. 560g-1 and creating a new section to be numbered 560-1 of the Statutes, relating to special State aid to rural schools.

Special State aid to teacher in school district not composed wholly or in part of an incorporated village or city after first year of employment. Amount of such aid: For second year, $2 per month; for third year, $4 per month; for fourth and succeeding years, $8 per month so long as teacher remains in same position. If any such district employs a teacher who is a graduate from a rural school course of two years beyond a high school in any normal school or county training school of the State or equivalent thereof, such teacher shall be entitled to special State aid of $10; for each year that teacher shall thereafter be retained, special State aid of $15 per month. Teacher receiving aid under the latter provision shall not receive aid under preceding provision.
Ch. 610, Aug. 23, 1915.

Wisconsin: Providing for renumbering certain chapters of the Wisconsin Statutes and revising certain sections and subsections of said Statutes and certain session laws, all relating to appropriations.

Appropriates money for the office of State superintendent, the common schools and for State aid to consolidated and graded schools, high schools special training courses in high schools, auxiliary schools, day schools for the deaf and blind, and defective in special industrial schools, normal schools, the university, etc., and provides manner of distribution of funds to schools, institutions, etc. Ch. 14, Mar. 16, 1917.

Wisconsin: Amending sec. 496h, Wisconsin Statutes, relating to State aid to graded schools.

Allows aid to more than one graded school in any school district or subdistrict, but not in a village. Ch. 187, May 9, 1917.

Wisconsin: Amending sec. 560g, 560h, and 560i, Wisconsin Statutes, fixing requirements for special State aid to first-class rural schools and making an appropriation therefor, and repealing 460n. Ch. 317, June 1, 1917.

Wisconsin: Amending subsecs. 1, 2, 6, and 7, sec. 560g-1, Wisconsin Statutes relating to aid to teachers in rural schools.

Extends such aid to any school district in which all the school buildings are outside the corporate limits of any city or village, but not for a teacher employed in a graded school of two or more departments or in a high school in such district. Aid based on length of service in same school.
Ch. 344, June 6, 1917.

Wisconsin: See also A (c1), County boards; H (e), Consolidation of districts etc.; O (a), Industrial education, general.

B (f). Special State Aid for Secondary Education.

See also N (a), High schools.

California: See N (a), High schools.

Delaware: See A (f), Administrative units—districts, etc.

Maine: See N (a), High schools; O (a), Industrial education, general.

Maryland: See A (a), Administration and supervision, general.

Minnesota: See B (e), State aid for elementary education; H (e), Consolidation of districts, etc.; L (1), Manual and industrial education.

Mississippi: An act to amend ch. 254, laws of 1912, by stating the amount a joint agricultural high school shall receive in case it shall have more than 60 boarding pupils, and the amount such school shall receive in case it shall have more than 80 boarding pupils.

Joint high school maintained by two counties and having more than 60 boarding pupils shall receive State aid to amount of $3,500; more than 80 pupils, $4,000. Ch. 193, Apr. 3, 1916.

Missouri: See G (c), County and local normal schools.

Montana: See N (a), High schools.

Nebraska: See C (c), Local taxation; N (a), High schools.

North Carolina: See B (e), State aid for elementary education.

North Dakota: See B (e), State aid for elementary education; N (a), High schools.

Oregon: See N (a), High schools.

South Carolina: See N (a), High schools.

Tennessee: See B (e), State aid for elementary education; Q (f), Other technical and professional schools.

Texas: See A (c1), County boards.

Utah: Amending secs. 4, 5, and 6, ch. 29, Acts of 1911, relating to the reports of high-school enrollment and to the apportionment and disburseemnt of State high-school fund.

Amendment has effect of providing for apportionments in January and June nstead of only one apportionment in the year, namely, in June.
Ch. 110. Mar. 22, 1915.

Utah: See also B (d), State taxation for school purposes.

Vermont: See B (e), State aid for elementary education; N (a), High chools.

Washington: Relating to the attendance of high-school pupils from nonhigh-chool districts and providing for the reimbursement of certain school districts or the cost of educating high-school pupils from other school districts; reating two classes of school districts for such purpose; providing for a fund nd place of taxation for such reimbursement; fixing requirements for admission to certain high schools and giving the district board of directors power to arrange and pay for transportation of pupils for the purposes of this act.
Ch. 21, Feb. 26, 1917.

West Virginia: See G (c), County and local normal schools; N (a), High schools.

Wisconsin: See G (c), County and local normal schools; N (a), High schools; O (a), Industrial education, general; O (b), Agricultural schools.

C. LOCAL (COUNTY, DISTRICT, MUNICIPAL) FINANCE AND SUPPORT.

(a) General.

Florida: See A (c1), County boards.

Idaho: Prohibiting the conversion of funds belonging to common-school districts, and providing a penalty.

Such funds must on receipt be immediately deposited with the county treasurer. Ch. 125, Mar. 15, 1915.

Illinois: Amending sec. 189 of "An act to establish and maintain a system of free schools," approved June 12, 1909, as amended by an act approved June 20, 1913.

The provision that "incidental expenses" shall not include any sum expended for the "improvement, repair, or benefit of the school buildings" is extended to all districts. In the older act it applied only to those having a population of less than 100,000. H. B. 204, p. 644, May 27, 1915.

Kansas: Relating to the security of county, township, city, or school funds and repealing ch. 63, session laws of 1911.

Custodians of such funds shall not require bonds of banks or trust companies when such companies participate in the bank depositor's guarantee fund of the State or when the entire deposits of such companies are guaranteed by a bond of indemnity issued by any surety company authorized by the State insurance commissioner. Ch. 90, Feb. 26, 1915.

Maine: Amending sec. 15, ch. 15, of the Revised Statutes, as amended, relating to accounting for the expenditure of school funds.

Act provides that unexpended balances shall be credited to school resources for the year following. Amendment of 1915 strikes out clause directing that provision regarding unexpended balances shall not apply to cities.
Ch. 201, Apr. 1, 1915.

Michigan: See A (d), District boards and officers.

New Jersey: Amending sec. 185 of an act entitled "An act to establish a thorough and efficient system of free public schools and to provide for the maintenance, support and management thereof," approved Oct. 19, 1903, relating to the custodian of school district funds.

Amendment provides that compensation of custodian shall be fixed by the board of education (formerly, common council or like civil authority). Said compensation shall be paid out of the school funds of the district. Custodian may be required by board to report at any time and to deposit funds in a bank designated by board. Ch. 302, Apr. 14, 1915.

New Jersey: Requiring the filing of financial statements of cities and other municipalities, counties and school districts.

Requires such statements to be filed with the State commissioner of municipal accounts provided for in ch. 154, Acts of 1917. Ch. 155, Mar. 27, 1917.

New Mexico: Providing for auditing the books of accounts of municipal corporations and school districts any part of which lies within a municipal corporation. Ch. 90, Mar. 18, 1915.

Ohio: Amending secs. 7604, 7605, and 7609 of the General Code, relating to the deposit of school funds in depositories.

Requires school boards to provide for the deposit of school funds in banks. S. B. No. 163, p. 328, May 25, 1915.

Oregon: To secure to the several school districts of the State having more than 20,000 children of school age interest on school funds, and to provide for depositories for school funds, and defining the duties of the school board and school clerk in relation thereto, describing the security to be given and providing for the approval thereof, and providing penalties for the violation of this act. Ch. 236, Feb. 24, 1915.

South Dakota: Requiring school boards to publish annually in nearest newspaper a report of receipts and expenditures and of financial condition of district. Ch. 173, Mar. 1, 1915.

Texas: Proposing an amendment to article 7 of the constitution of the State of Texas, by adding thereto section 3b, authorizing the legislature to provide by law for the creation of a students' loan fund in each county in connection with the public schools thereof. H. J. R. No. 9, p. 286, Mar. 30, 1915.

Texas: Penalty for misapplication of school funds.
Ch. 135, Mar. 29, 1917.

Vermont: See A (a), Administration and supervision, general.

Washington: Relating to the raising and expenditure of revenues by counties, cities, towns, townships, port districts, school districts and metropolitan park districts, requiring the adoption of a budget by each of the same, limiting the manner of the expenditure of the revenues, prescribing the manner of paying claims filed after the close of the fiscal year, providing penalties for the violation thereof, and repealing sec. 5, ch. 151, Acts of 1913, and secs. 9206 to 9211 inclusive, together with conflicting parts of secs. 4512 ,4521, 4537, 9212 of Remington and Ballinger's Annotated Codes and Statutes.
Ch. 49, Mar. 9, 1915.

Washington: Requiring that all warrants for the payment of claims against diking, ditch, drainage, and irrigation districts and school districts of the second and third classes shall be issued by the county auditor of the county wherein such district is located, upon vouchers properly approved by the respective commissioners, trustees, or directors of such districts.
Ch. 74, Mar. 15, 1915.

West Virginia: Authorizing the county courts, or tribunals created in lieu thereof, to provide depositories for public money; requiring the treasurers of county, district and other funds, and collectors of State, county and district funds to deposit the same therein, and making general provision in respect thereto. Ch. 84, Mar. 4, 1915.

C (b). Local (County, District, Municipal) Bonds and Indebtedness.

Arizona: Amending paragraphs 2864 and 2865 of the Revised Statutes of 1913.

Relates to the levy of special tax or issuance of bonds for the improvement of highways, etc., adjacent to school property in school districts or high-school districts in incorporated cities or towns. Only property taxpayers may vote at election. School board is now required to give each property taxpayer 10 days' written notice of election to determine special levy or issuance of bonds. Ch. 27, Mar. 9, 1915.

Arizona: Providing the procedure for the issuance and sale of bonds by boards of trustees of school districts. Ch. 53, Mar. 12, 1917.

Arkansas: Permitting any school district in the State to borrow money for building purposes and to mortgage the property of the district to secure the same. Act 160, Mar. 1, 1917.

Arkansas: Providing for the issuance of school district bonds as evidence of school district indebtedness. Act 180, Mar. 6, 1917.

California: Legalizing the sale of school bonds heretofore sold or hereafter sold in any district.

Act does not operate to legalize where bonds are sold below par, or where two-third vote of qualified electors was not secured, or where bonds were sold to run longer than 40 years. Ch. 80, Apr. 21, 1915.

Colorado: Amending sec. 11 of ch. 137, Acts of 1913, relating to the limitation of tax levies.

The provision limiting tax levy of any year to that of previous year plus 5 per cent is made not to apply to school district levies for paying bonds and interest thereon; limitation upon the amount of indebtedness of a school district shall be computed upon 70 per cent of property valuation instead of full valuation. Ch. 140, Apr. 10, 1915.

Colorado: Requiring the registry of school district bonds by county clerk. Ch. 144, Apr. 12, 1915.

Colorado: See also B (c), Permanent State school funds.

Delaware: See A (f), Administrative units—districts, etc.

Florida: Amending ch. 5390, Laws of Florida for 1905, authorizing county boards of public instruction to borrow money to pay outstanding warrants.

Amendment provides that board shall not borrow exceeding 80 per cent of the estimated receipts for the ensuing year. Ch. 6828 (No. 22) June 3, 1915.

Florida: Amending secs. 11 and 15, ch. 6542, Acts of 1913, relating to the issuance of bonds by special tax school districts.

Provides manner of expenditure of proceeds of bonds and for care and custody of such proceeds and of the sinking fund. Ch. 6967 (No. 161), June 3 1915.

Georgia: See C (c), Local taxation.

Idaho: Amending sec. 130, ch. 159, Laws of 1911, relating to the issuance of school district bonds for the purpose of refunding outstanding indebtedness.

Such bonds may be issued for paying interest as well as principal. Ch. 108, Mar. 15, 1915.

Idaho: Amending secs. 76, 77, 78, 79, 80, 81, 82, and 83, ch. 159, Acts of 1911, as amended, relating to the issuance of bonds by school districts.

Bonds payable in 20 years. Amount not to exceed 6 per cent of assessed valuation (old law, 4 per cent). Manner of holding election, etc., prescribed. Ch. 58, Mar. 20, 1917.

Illinois: Giving the board of education of any school district having a population of less than 100,000, and existing by virtue of any special charter or governed by any or all such special charters, the power to borrow money for certain purposes and issue negotiable coupon bonds therefor, and providing that the proposition or question to borrow money and issue such bonds shall be submitted to the voters of such school district.

H. B. 45, p. 640, June 29, 1915.

Illinois: Authorizing school directors, when there is no money in the hands of the district treasurer, to issue warrants in anticipation of taxes to be collected to the extent of 25 per cent of such taxes, and to pay 5 per cent interest on the same. H. B. 4, p. 659, May 19, 1915.

Illinois: Authorizing any school district to issue warrants in anticipation of taxes, amount of warrants not to exceed 75 per cent of such taxes and to bear not exceeding 5 per cent interest. H. B. 656, p. 158, June 28, 1917.

Indiana: Permitting any incorporated town of less than 2,000 population to assume the indebtedness of its school town. Ch. 17, Feb. 23, 1917.

Indiana: Authorizing school boards in cities and towns to make temporary loans in anticipation of taxes to be collected. Ch. 76, Mar. 6, 1917.

Indiana: Authorizing cities incorporated under general laws and incorporated towns to issue bonds for the purpose of funding or refunding school indebtedness. Ch. 166, Acts of 1917.

Indiana: Authorizing school townships and the corresponding civil townships to borrow money and issue bonds to purchase school grounds and erect schoolhouses in emergencies. Ch. 174, Acts of 1917.

Indiana: See also A (f), Administrative units—districts, etc.; O (a), Industrial education, general.

Kansas: Authorizing the board of education of any city of the first class having a population of less than 16,000 to issue bonds to pay outstanding warrants.

Ch. 310, Mar. 24, 1915.

Kansas: Providing for voting bonds in school districts having cities of the second class. Ch. 306, Mar. 6, 1915.

Kansas: Amending sec. 9081, General Statutes of 1915, limiting the amount of school bonds that may be issued in cities of the first class.

Maximum amount raised from 1 per cent to 2½ per cent of property valuation. This act not to apply to city having property valuation of $65,000,000.

Ch. 268, Mar. 8, 1917.

Kansas: Limiting bonded indebtedness of boards of education of cities of the second class.

Total bonded indebtedness not to exceed 2½ per cent of property valuation.

Ch. 272. Mar. 6, 1917.

Kansas: Providing for the voting of bonds to build school buildings in districts having a property valuation between $1,500,000 and $1,700,000.

Ch. 278, Feb. 27, 1917.

Kansas: Providing for funding floating indebtedness by township trustees and boards of education. Ch. 330, Mar. 13, 1917.

Kansas: See also D (a), Buildings and sites, general; N (a), High schools.

Kentucky: See A (d), District boards and officers.

Michigan: Relating to the issuance of bonds for school districts having a population of more than 15,000 and less than 100,000.

Provides that such districts shall have power to borrow money and issue bonds to an amount not exceeding 5 per cent of the total assessed valuation of the district, subject, however, to all provisions of law relating to the submission to the qualified electors of any or all questions relative to borrowing money and issuing bonds. Act. No. 15, May 7, 1915.

Michigan: See also S (a), Libraries, general.

Minnesota: Authorizing cities of over 50,000 inhabitants to issue and sell bonds for construction, erecting and equipping new public school buildings and acquiring grounds and sites therefor. Ch. 266, Apr. 23, 1915.

Minnesota: Authorizing cities of over 50,000 inhabitants to issue and sell bonds for public school purposes. Ch. 373, Apr. 20, 1917.

Minnesota: Amending secs. 4 and 5, ch. 238, Acts of 1915, relating to the formation of consolidated school districts.

When districts are consolidated, liability for existing bonded indebtedness remains on the original districts. Ch. 410, Apr. 20, 1917.

Minnesota: See also H (e), Consolidation of districts, etc.; M (d), Vacation schools, playgrounds, etc.

Mississippi: See A (f), Administrative units—districts, etc.

Missouri: Amending secs. 10992 and 11019, art. 12, ch. 106, Revised Statutes of 1909, relating to the issuance of school district bonds.

Adds "additions to buildings, remodeling, and reconstructing buildings" to purposes for which bonds may be issued. H. B. 146, p. 390, Mar. 15, 1915.

Missouri: Amending sec. 10857, Revised Statutes, 1909, providing that tuition fees may be used to liquidate indebtedness accruing in the building fund. H. B. 42, p. 507, Apr. 12, 1917.

Nebraska: Amending secs. 365 and 366, Revised Statutes, 1913, making the county treasurer the fiscal agent of the county and of the political subdivisions thereof for the payment of bonded indebtedness. Ch. 7, Apr. 21, 1917.

Nebraska: Amending sec. 455, Revised Statutes, 1913, making it the duty of the State auditor to register school district bonds. Ch. 8, Apr. 25, 1917.

Nebraska: Amending sec. 448, Revised Statutes, 1913, relating to the issuance of school bonds.

Reduces from two-thirds to three-fifths the majority necessary for qualified electors to vote bonds. Ch. 9, Apr. 11, 1917.

Nebraska: Amending sec. 6832, Revised Statutes, 1913, relating to county high-school bonds.

Manner of issuance prescribed. Ch. 126, Mar. 28, 1917.

Nebraska: See also A (f), Administrative units—districts, etc.; C (c), Local taxation; N (a), high schools.

Nevada: Amending sec. 197, ch. 133, Acts of 1911, and adding thereto a new section to be known as sec. 197a, relating to school district bonds.

Provides for the redemption of bonds before their maturity when there are funds sufficient to redeem and to pay interest. Ch. 40, Feb. 26, 1913.

Nevada: See also H (e), Consolidation of districts, etc.; N (a), High schools.

New Jersey: Supplementing an act entitled "An act to establish a thorough and efficient system of free public schools, and to provide for the maintenance, support and management thereof," approved Oct. 19, 1903, relating to school bonds.

Transfers from board of education to sinking fund commission the control of school sinking funds in any district situated wholly in a municipality in which there is such a commission. Ch. 349, Apr. 19, 1915.

New Jersey: Validating and confirming the proceedings and proposed issue of bonds of any school district.

When bonds have been legally voted for a period longer than 30 years their issue is validated, but full period shall not exceed 35 years. Ch. 48, Mar. 15, 1915.

New Jersey: Supplementing an act entitled "An act to establish a thorough and efficient system of free public schools," etc., approved Oct. 19, 1903, relating to the financing of school improvements.

Authorizes municipalities and school districts to issue notes or temporary loan bonds to run not exceeding one year in anticipation of receipt of proceeds of permanent bonds duly authorized. Ch. 112, Mar. 16, 1916.

New Jersey: Amending sec. 76 of "An act to establish a thorough and efficient system of public schools," etc., approved Oct. 19, 1903.

Provides for the issuance of school bonds in cities. Increases from 5 per cent to 6 per cent the interest which such bonds may bear. Bonds may run different periods for different kinds of buildings, purposes, etc.
Ch. 110, Mar. 24, 1917.

New Jersey: Amending sec. 97 of "An act to establish a thorough and efficient system of public schools," etc., approved Oct. 19, 1903.

Provides for the issuance of bonds in school districts. May bear not exceeding 6 per cent interest. Bonds to run different periods for different kinds of buildings, purposes, etc. Ch. 111, Mar. 24, 1917.

New Mexico: See A (c1), County boards; B (d). State taxation for school purposes.

New York: Amending the education law relative to proceedings for the issuance and sale of school district bonds.

Provides for proceedings before the commissioner of education for the purpose of validating the proceedings of a district meeting authorizing a tax to pay bonds. Ch. 413, May 8, 1917.

North Carolina: Authorizing counties, townships, and certain school districts to issue bonds to build schoolhouses.

Act applies to counties and townships and to school districts embracing an incorporated town or city and maintaining a public high school. Bonds for providing schoolhouses and equipment. Voted by majority of those voting at election held in county, township or district as case may be. Interest shall not exceed 6 per cent. Tax to pay interest and create a sinking fund shall not exceed 30 cents on the hundred dollars of property valuation and 90 cents on each poll. Term of bonds shall not exceed 20 years. Amount shall not exceed $100,000 for a county, nor $25,000 for a township or school district. Bonds shall not be sold below par. Ch. 55, Feb. 26, 1915.

North Carolina: Authorizing the board of aldermen or other governing body of towns and cities to issue, upon approval by vote of the people, bonds for purchasing sites, erecting buildings, etc., for school purposes.

Term of bonds not to exceed 30 years; bonds shall be serial, the proportionate part being paid annually. Interest shall not exceed 6 per cent. Bonds shall not be sold below par. Tax authorized to pay bonds as they become due and to pay interest. Majority vote of people necessary.
Ch. 81, Mar. 4, 1915.

North Carolina: Amending ch. 55, Acts of 1915, relating to bond issues for schoolhouses.

Provides for elections for additional bond issues.
Ch. 142, Mar. 5, 1917.

North Carolina: Prohibiting the sale of public bonds without notice.
Ch. 147, Mar. 5, 1917.

North Dakota: Authorizing counties in which county agricultural and training schools have been established to issue negotiable county bonds to pay the outstanding warrants of such institutions and to meet the current expenses of maintaining such schools, in anticipation of funds to be derived from State and county levies; also, providing for the disposition of such bonds and for the levying of an annual tax sufficient to pay the interest and also the principal of such bonds when due. Ch. 126, Mar. 2, 1915.

North Dakota: Amending sec. 1276, Compiled Laws of 1913, providing for evying taxes in special school districts for the payment of interest on bonds nd outstanding warrants and for the creation of a sinking fund to redeem the ame. Ch. 131, Feb. 20, 1913.

North Dakota: Authorizing and directing the board of university and school ands and the State treasurer to allow counties, cities, towns, villages, and chool districts that have sold their bonds at par to the State to redeem at par vith accrued interest one or more of said bonds when sufficient funds have ccumulated in their sinking fund. Ch. 270, Feb. 18, 1915.

North Dakota: See also C (c), Local taxation.

Ohio: Providing means for municipal corporations, boards of education of chool districts, and the commissioners of a county to secure funds to meet the ayment of current expenses and sinking fund indebtedness when tax collections ggregating 50 per cent or more of the general tax duplicate of any taxing istrict of any fiscal year have been enjoined or the collection of which is in litigation. S. B. No. 47, p. 11, Mar. 1, 1915.

Ohio: Amending secs. 2294, 2295, 3924, 4228, 4229, 4232, 4676, 6255, 7626, and 7627 of the General Code, and supplementing secs. 3914 and 5630 of the General Code, relating to the legal publication of notices and the sale of public bonds. H. B. No. 453, p. 492, June 3, 1915.

Ohio: Providing for the reissue of lost or destroyed bonds and certificates of indebtedness. H. B. No. 219, p. 303, May 18, 1915.

Ohio: Authorizing municipal corporations and school districts to adjust their fiscal operations to the limitation on tax levies by funding existing deficiencies. S. B. No. 232, p. 575, Mar. 30, 1917.

Ohio: See also S (a), Libraries, general.

Oklahoma: See H (e), Consolidation of districts, etc.

Oregon: Providing for loaning the sinking funds of school districts. Ch. 180, Feb. 23, 1915.

Oregon: Requiring the payment of unpaid school warrants in the order of their endorsement with the words "Not paid for want of funds." Ch. 229, Feb. 17, 1917.

Oregon: See also A (e), School meetings, elections, etc.

Pennsylvania: Amending sec. 506 of the School Code of 1911, relating to school bonds and indebtedness.

Omits provision that indebtedness shall be incurred and bonds issued therefor only at the time of assessing and levying the annual school taxes. Act No. 377, June 4, 1915.

Pennsylvania: Requiring all counties, cities, boroughs, townships, school districts, and other municipalities and incorporated districts to sell any bonds or other securities issued by them to the highest responsible bidder, after due public notice. Act No. 271, July 6, 1917.

South Carolina: An act to require a permanent record in case of public bond issues. Act No. 533, Feb. 25, 1916.

South Dakota: Amending sec. 194, ch. 135, Acts of 1907, relating to publication and sale of school bonds. Ch. 217, Mar. 10, 1917.

South Dakota: See also A (e), School meetings, elections, etc.

Washington: An act to provide for the registration of principal or of principal and interest of bonds of counties, cities, towns, port, and school districts. Ch. 91, Mar. 16, 1915.

Washington: Making counties, cities, towns, school districts, and other municipal corporations subject to garnishment. Ch. 130, Mar. 17, 1915.

Washington: Exempting school districts from liability for noncontractual acts of omissions. Ch. 92, Mar. 12, 1917.

Washington: Relating to the financial affairs of taxing districts; limiting and prescribing what shall be treated as assets in computing indebtedness of such districts; limiting their power to contract debts or incur liabilities, and prescribing a method for determining the same.

Applies to school districts. Ch. 143, Mar. 15, 1917.

West Virginia: Requiring all bonds which are authorized by vote of the people, the payment whereof is by taxation, to be submitted to the attorney general for his approval or disapproval of the validity thereof; making all said bonds so approved valid, incontestable, and binding; providing a proceeding in the supreme court of appeals to annul, affirm, or modify the approval or disapproval by the attorney general. Ch. 57, Feb. 16, 1917.

Wisconsin: Amending sec. 475 of the Statutes, relating to loans for erecting and purchasing schoolhouses.

Authorizes borrowing money for purchasing (as well as erecting) schoolhouses. Ch. 226, June 10, 1915.

Wisconsin: Creating sec. 474b of the Statutes, empowering school district electors to borrow money for the purpose of purchasing a school site or a school playground. Ch. 329, June 29, 1915.

Wisconsin: Amending sec. 475, Wisconsin Statutes, relating to loans by school districts.

Authorizes school district to borrow money to provide site, schoolhouse and equipment. Ch. 111, Apr. 20, 1917.

Wisconsin: Amending first paragraph, subdivision nine, sec. 925–133, Wisconsin Statutes, regulating the issuance of bonds for schoolhouses, libraries, etc. Ch. 154, May 4, 1917.

C (e). Local (County, District, Municipal) Taxation for School Purposes.

Alabama: Submitting to the qualified electors of the State an amendment to the constitution for the purpose of authorizing the several counties and the several school districts of any county to levy and collect a special tax for school purposes.

Provides for an additional county tax of not exceeding 3 mills on the dollar and for a district tax of not exceeding 3 mills; but district tax can not be levied until county of which district is a part has levied at least 3 mills. After adoption of amendment, whether tax shall be levied, amount of levy, time tax is to continue, and purpose for which levied shall be determined by majority vote of qualified electors voting at election held in county or district as the case may be. Act. No. 60, p. 107, Mar. 17, 1915.

Alabama: To provide for elections, to authorize any county in the State and any school district now existing or hereafter formed in any county, to levy and collect a special county tax for public school purposes, not exceeding 30 cents on each $100 of taxable property in such county and in such school district.

Provides for election to levy a county tax of not exceeding 30 cents on $100 or a district tax of not exceeding 30 cents on $100, but district shall not levy a tax until a county tax of 30 cents is levied. (The taking effect of this act is contingent upon adoption of proposed amendment to the constitution, which amendment permits such tax.) Act No. 403, p. 360, Sept. 10, 1915.

Alabama: See also B (e), State aid for elementary education; N (a), High schools.

Alaska: Amending subdiv. 6, sec. 4, ch. 47, session laws of 1913, as amended by sec. 1, ch. 18, session laws of 1915, relating to taxation in second class municipal corporations.

Authorizes trustees of such corporations to levy a tax for school purposes.
Ch. 21, Apr. 30, 1917.

Arizona: Amending paragraph 2818, Revised Statutes of 1913, relating to county school taxes.

Omits provision that district employing but one teacher shall not receive exceeding $1,000. Adds provision that district employing two teachers shall receive not less than $1,700, but if average attendance is 38 pupils or more, county superintendent, with approval of supervisors, may fix allotment between $850 and $1,700. Ch. 45, Mar. 12, 1917.

Arizona: See also C (b), Local bonds and indebtedness.

Arkansas: Proposing an amendment to the constitution of the State, amending sec. 3, Art. XIV, so that the general assembly may by general law authorize school districts to levy by a vote of the qualified electors of such districts a tax not to exceed 12 mills on the dollar in any one year for school purposes.
Amendment No. 12, p. 2304, Acts of 1917.

Arkansas: Amending sec. 2, act 189, Acts of 1907, relating to the powers of school electors at a school district meeting.

Among other powers, such electors may levy a school tax of not exceeding 12 mills on the dollar. Act 144, Feb. 27, 1917.

California: Adding sec. 1838 to the Political Code, relating to the powers and duties of the governing boards of school districts in levying taxes for building purposes.

Allows additional tax of 15 cents on the hundred dollars for building purposes. Ch. 752, June 1, 1917.

California: See also N (a), High schools.

Colorado: Amending secs. 11 and 14, ch. 137, Acts of 1913, relating to the limitation of tax rates.

Minor changes as to limit to 5 per cent above rate of last preceding year.
Ch. 114, Mar. 29, 1917.

Colorado: See also C (b), School bonds and indebtedness; N (a), High schools.

Delaware: Amending sec. 2292, ch. 71, Revised Code of 1915, making property assessable for free school purposes the same as property assessable for county purposes.

Property formerly assessable for school purposes on "rental value"; now assessable on real value. Ch. 177, Apr. 2, 1917.

Delaware: See also A (f), Administrative units—districts, etc.

Florida: Proposing an amendment to the constitution providing for county taxation for school purposes.

Proposed amendment would require each county to levy a school tax of not less than 3 nor more than 10 mills on the dollar.
H. J. R. No. 25, p. 323, May 25, 1917.

Georgia: Amending sec. 1536, Code of 1911, relating to local taxation for school purposes.

Provides that when local tax is repealed by vote of the people, board of trustees of district or county, as the case may require, may continue to levy tax until existing indebtedness is paid. No. 472, p. 38, Aug. 18, 1916.

Georgia: Amending sec. 1534, Code of 1911, relating to local taxation for school purposes.

Provides that whenever the number of qualified voters in a county exceeds 5,000 the number required on a petition to secure a vote on the question of county taxation for school purposes shall be one-tenth of such voters (was one-fourth). Tax allowed, one-half of 1 per cent of property valuation.
No. 284, p. 36, Aug. 18, 1916.

Ch. 835, Laws of 1907. Permits the issuance of State certificate to applicants making on examination an average of 75 per cent (was 90 per cent). Authorizes board of examiners to allow, in lieu of examination for State certificates credits for academic and professional work done in approved institutions and for successful experiences. Authorizes board of examiners to renew State certificates and on second renewal to convert the same into life certificates. Authorizes board of examiners to allow, in lieu of examination for high-school certificate, credits for work done in approved institutions and for successful experience and to renew said certificates as State certificates may be renewed.

Ch. 33, Laws of 1913. Maximum amount of "State equalizing fund" (for equalizing school term) that may be apportioned shall be as follows: To county having total school fund (State and county) of $10,000 or less, not more than 25 per cent thereof; $10,000 to $20,000, not more than 20 per cent thereof; $20,000 to $30,000, not more than 17½ per cent; $30,000 to $50,000, not more than 16 per cent; over $50,000, not more than 15 per cent.

Ch. 236, Mar. 9, 1915.

North Dakota: Amending secs. 1439, 1440, 1441, 1443, 1445, 1446, and 1448 Compiled Laws, 1913, relating to State aid for rural schools.

Any school receiving aid under this act shall receive pupils from any part of the State. State graded schools divided into three classes; State rural schools divided into three classes. (Under amended law, each kind was divided into two classes.) Classification based on length of term, quality of teachers and principal, building and equipment, and courses offered. Graded schools: First class must have three years of high school work; second class, two years; third class, one year. Annual State aid to graded schools: First class, $100; second class, $75; third class, $50. Annual State aid to rural schools: First class, $50; second class, $40; third class, $30. If district levies between 15 and 25 mills, State aid shall be doubled for each class of school; if over 25 mills, State aid shall be trebled. Annual aid to consolidated schools: First class, $400; second class, $350; third class, $300. If tax levy is between 15 and 25 mills, State aid trebled. Provision for promotion of one class of school to a higher class.

H. B. 86, p. 96 Pop. Ed., Mar. 10, 1917.

Ohio: Amending secs. 7595 and 7595–1 of the General Code, relating to the division of school funds and salaries paid teachers in school districts receiving State aid as weak districts.

District receiving State aid shall devote at least two-thirds (was three-fourths) of maximum levy to the tuition fund. In order to be entitled to minimum salary of $45 a month, elementary teacher must have had one year of professional training (was six weeks of such training).

H. B. No. 230, p. 430, May 27, 1915.

Oklahoma: See H (c), School year, month, day, etc.

Oregon: Amending sec. 3971, Lord's Oregon Laws, relating to apportionment of county school fund.

Changes time of first apportionment from October to November.

Ch. 11, Jan. 24, 1917.

Pennsylvania: See H (g), Child labor.

Rhode Island: Amending secs. 7 and 8, ch. 65, of the General Laws, providing State aid for the purchase of works of reference and apparatus for the use of the public schools.

Increases from $4,000 to $4,500 the annual appropriation for such purpose.

Ch. 1348, Mar. 23, 1916.

Rhode Island: See also A (d), District boards and officers.

South Carolina: Providing an equalizing fund to guarantee adequate facilities and teaching corps in needy school districts. No. 43, Feb. 27, 1917.

South Carolina: See also L (j), Agriculture.

South Dakota: Providing aid for school districts in which indemnity and endowment lands are situated. Ch. 335, Feb. 13, 1917.

Tennessee: Amending secs. 2, 3, 5, and 7, ch. 264, Acts of 1909, relating to the State general education fund.

No part of said fund to be used for building purposes. Fourteen per cent of fund to be used in increasing length of school terms; no county to share in fund unless it levies at least 40 cents on the hundred dollars of taxable property and a tax of $2 on each poll; allowance to counties having school term of less than 140 days. Nine per cent of said fund to be used for high schools. Entrance requirements for normal schools are prescribed.
Ch. 130, Apr. 7, 1917.

Texas: Appropriating $1,000,000 annually for two years for the benefit of rural schools. Ch. 80, Mar. 15, 1917.

Texas: See also A (c1), County boards.

Utah: Amending sec. 1870X, Compiled Laws of 1907, as amended by ch. 8, Acts of 1909, ch. 5, Acts of 1911, and ch. 11, Acts of 1913, relating to State aid for public schools where the revenues are insufficient.

Any district of a county in which the county school levy is 4 mills and the district levy is 10 mills which is still unable to maintain school for 28 weeks in the year and pay each approved teacher $525 per annum shall be entitled to State aid to enable such district to do so. (District levy formerly required was only 5 mills.) Ch. 8, Mar. 1 ,1915.

Utah: Providing differential aid for school districts where the revenue from the State, county, and district school tax is insufficient.

State aid of amount sufficient, when added to maximum amounts available from State, county, and district sources, to enable district to pay each elementary teacher approved by the State board of education $600 for school term of at least 32 weeks, but not exceeding $20,000 annually may be so expended by the State. If said $20,000 is not sufficient to pay the sums required, the same shall be distributed pro rata. Ch. 77, Mar. 12, 1917.

Utah: See also B (d), State taxation for school purposes; M (b), Kindergartens.

Vermont: Amending sec. 175, 176, and 177, No. 64, acts of 1915, relating to the consolidated school fund, and sec. 1, No. 40, acts of 1912, relating to vocational education.

Adds fees for licenses to peddlers, auctioneers, circuses, and menageries to consolidated school fund. Adds following purposes and amounts for which such fund shall be annually apportioned: For rebates to towns for high-school tuition, $65,000; for junior and senior high schools, $10,000; for support of State normal schools, $25,000; for vocational training, $5,000; for agricultural education, $5,000; for home economics and trade education, $5,000; for boys' and girls' agricultural and industrial expositions, $1,500. State aid for manual training, home economics, and agriculture in approved high schools is provided. No. 64, Apr. 11, 1917.

Vermont: See also A (a), Administration and supervision, general.

Washington: See M (b), Kindergartens.

West Virginia: See C (c), Local taxation.

Wisconsin: Repealing sec. 560g-1 and creating a new section to be numbered 560-1 of the Statutes, relating to special State aid to rural schools.

Special State aid to teacher in school district not composed wholly or in part of an incorporated village or city after first year of employment. Amount of such aid: For second year, $2 per month; for third year, $4 per month; for fourth and succeeding years, $8 per month so long as teacher remains in same position. If any such district employs a teacher who is a graduate from a rural school course of two years beyond a high school in any normal school or county training school of the State or equivalent thereof, such teacher shall be entitled to special State aid of $10; for each year that teacher shall thereafter be retained, special State aid of $15 per month. Teacher receiving aid under the latter provision shall not receive aid under preceding provision.
Ch. 610, Aug. 23, 1915.

Wisconsin: Providing for renumbering certain chapters of the Wisconsin Statutes and revising certain sections and subsections of said Statutes and certain session laws, all relating to appropriations.

Appropriates money for the office of State superintendent, the common schools and for State aid to consolidated and graded schools, high schools, special training courses in high schools, auxiliary schools, day schools for the deaf and blind, and defective in special industrial schools, normal schools, the university, etc., and provides manner of distribution of funds to schools, institutions, etc. Ch. 14, Mar. 16, 1917.

Wisconsin: Amending sec. 496b, Wisconsin Statutes, relating to State aid to graded schools.

Allows aid to more than one graded school in any school district or subdistrict, but not in a village. Ch. 187, May 9, 1917.

Wisconsin: Amending sec. 560g, 560h, and 560l, Wisconsin Statutes, fixing requirements for special State aid to first-class rural schools and making an appropriation therefor, and repealing 460n. Ch. 317, June 1, 1917.

Wisconsin: Amending subsecs. 1, 2, 6, and 7, sec. 560g–1, Wisconsin Statutes, relating to aid to teachers in rural schools.

Extends such aid to any school district in which all the school buildings are outside the corporate limits of any city or village, but not for a teacher employed in a graded school of two or more departments or in a high school in said district. Aid based on length of service in same school.
Ch. 344, June 6, 1917.

Wisconsin: See also A (c1), County boards; H (e), Consolidation of districts, etc.; O (a), Industrial education, general.

B (f). Special State Aid for Secondary Education.

See also N (a), High schools.

California: See N (a), High schools.

Delaware: See A (f), Administrative units—districts, etc.

Maine: See N (a), High schools; O (a), Industrial education, general.

Maryland: See A (a), Administration and supervision, general.

Minnesota: See B (e), State aid for elementary education; H (e), Consolidation of districts, etc.; L (i), Manual and industrial education.

Mississippi: An act to amend ch. 254, laws of 1912, by stating the amount a joint agricultural high school shall receive in case it shall have more than 80 boarding pupils, and the amount such school shall receive in case it shall have more than 80 boarding pupils.

Joint high school maintained by two counties and having more than 80 boarding pupils shall receive State aid to amount of $3,500; more than 80 pupils, $4,000. Ch. 193, Apr. 3, 1916.

Missouri: See G (c), County and local normal schools.

Montana: See N (a), High schools.

Nebraska: See C (c), Local taxation; N (a), High schools.

North Carolina: See B (e), State aid for elementary education.

North Dakota: See B (e), State aid for elementary education; N (a), High schools.

Oregon: See N (a), High schools.

South Carolina: See N (a), High schools.

Tennessee: See B (e), State aid for elementary education; Q (f), Other technical and professional schools.

Texas: See A (c1), County boards.

Utah: Amending secs. 4, 5, and 6, ch. 29, Acts of 1911, relating to the reports of high-school enrollment and to the apportionment and disburseemnt of State high-school fund.

Amendment has effect of providing for apportionments in January and June stead of only one apportionment in the year, namely, in June.
Ch. 110, Mar. 22, 1915.

Utah: See also B (d), State taxation for school purposes.

Vermont: See B (e), State aid for elementary education; N (a), High chools.

Washington: Relating to the attendance of high-school pupils from nonhigh-chool districts and providing for the reimbursement of certain school districts or the cost of educating high-school pupils from other school districts; reating two classes of school districts for such purpose; providing for a fund nd place of taxation for such reimbursement; fixing requirements for admision to certain high schools and giving the district board of directors power to arrange and pay for transportation of pupils for the purposes of this act.
Ch. 21, Feb. 26, 1917.

West Virginia: See G (c), County and local normal schools; N (a), High schools.

Wisconsin: See G (c), County and local normal schools; N (a), High schools; O (a), Industrial education, general; O (b), Agricultural schools.

C. LOCAL (COUNTY, DISTRICT, MUNICIPAL) FINANCE AND SUPPORT.

(a) General.

Florida: See A (c1), County boards.

Idaho: Prohibiting the conversion of funds belonging to common-school districts, and providing a penalty.

Such funds must on receipt be immediately deposited with the county treasurer. Ch. 125, Mar. 15, 1915.

Illinois: Amending sec. 189 of "An act to establish and maintain a system of free schools," approved June 12, 1909, as amended by an act approved June 20, 1913.

The provision that "incidental expenses" shall not include any sum expended for the "improvement, repair, or benefit of the school buildings" is extended to all districts. In the older act it applied only to those having a population of less than 100,000. H. B. 204, p. 644, May 27, 1915.

Kansas: Relating to the security of county, township, city, or school funds and repealing ch. 63, session laws of 1911.

Custodians of such funds shall not require bonds of banks or trust companies when such companies participate in the bank depositor's guarantee fund of the State or when the entire deposits of such companies are guaranteed by a bond of indemnity issued by any surety company authorized by the State insurance commissioner. Ch. 90, Feb. 26, 1915.

Maine: Amending sec. 15, ch. 15, of the Revised Statutes, as amended, relating to accounting for the expenditure of school funds.

Act provides that unexpended balances shall be credited to school resources for the year following. Amendment of 1915 strikes out clause directing that provision regarding unexpended balances shall not apply to cities.
Ch. 201, Apr. 1, 1915.

Michigan: See A (d), District boards and officers.

New Jersey: Amending sec. 185 of an act entitled "An act to establish a thorough and efficient system of free public schools and to provide for the maintenance, support and management thereof," approved Oct. 19, 1903, relating to the custodian of school district funds.

and providing for excess levies, and prohibiting the employment of tea until the excess levy, if any be needed, be voted.

Ch. 192, Apr. 2, 19

Oklahoma: Amending secs. 1 and 2, ch. 192, session laws of 1915, relatin school levies in cities of the first class.

Provides procedure for holding election for higher levy when 5 mills wi support schools. Ch. 254, Mar. 21, 19

Oklahoma: Amending sec. 7376, Revised Laws, 1910, relating to taxatio

Allows county school tax levy of not exceeding 1 mill on the dollar and trict school levy of not exceeding 5 mills. Ch. 262, Mar. 10, 19

Oklahoma: See also H (e), Consolidation of districts, etc.

Oregon: Limiting the levy of taxes in the several taxing districts of State, prescribing penalties for the violation of this act and repealing flicting acts.

For each year the authority of taxing bodies shall be so limited as to pro levying a greater amount of revenue than the larger amount levied in either the last two preceding years when a levy was made, plus 6 per cent, unless voters of such district shall by a majority vote decide upon an increased le for any year. This act shall not limit levy for paying debts or for local provements. Ch. 159, Feb. 23, 191

Oregon: Amending sec. 4088 of Lord's Oregon Laws, relating to distr school taxes.

Requires that an itemized budget showing contemplated expenditures sh be submitted to the county superintendent and shall be contained in the call the district meeting. The levy by a district of the third class may be reviewed and lowered by the district boundary board of the county.

Ch. 56, Feb. 10. 1915

Oregon: Providing for elections on the question of increasing tax levies ove the amounts otherwise limited by the constitution, and repealing ch. 159, Ac of 1915. Ch. 150, Feb. 15, 1917

Oregon: Amending sec. 4088, Lord's Oregon Laws, as amended by ch. Acts of 1915, regulating the voting of taxes at district school meetings.

Ch. 206, Feb. 17, 1917

Oregon: Amending secs. 3664 and 3665, Lord's Oregon Laws, requiring scho districts and other taxing corporations to notify county assessor and coun clerk of amounts of money proposed to be raised in such districts or corpora tions. Ch. 225, Feb. 17, 1917

Oregon: Limiting the amount of levy in school districts of more than 100,00 population.

Unless voted by legal voters, such levy shall not exceed 6 mills, but this sha not apply to the payment of debts. Ch. 274, Feb. 19. 1917

Oregon: Proposing an amendment to Art. XI of the constitution providing limit to tax rates.

Unless specifically authorized by majority vote of legal voters voting on the question, neither State, county, municipality, district, nor other taxing body shall in any year raise an amount of revenue, other than for the payment of bonds and interest, greater than the amount raised in the year immediately preceding plus 6 per cent. General Laws, 1917, p. 12.

Oregon: See also A (e), School meetings, elections, etc.; S (a), Public libraries.

South Carolina: Providing for the levy of taxes for school and county purposes for the fiscal year beginning January 1, 1915, and for the expenditure thereof.

Fixes county school tax at 3 mills on the dollar. Act No. 164, Feb. 20, 1915.

South Carolina: Amending sec. 5 of "An act to provide a license for hunters and a penalty for failure to procure the same," approved Mar. 6, 1915.

xtends the provisions of the act to 15 additional counties; provides that -half of the proceeds of fees shall be appropriated to schools, except in three nties named. Act No. 432, Mar. 25, 1916.

outh Carolina: See also L (j), Agriculture; N (a), High schools; S (a), blic libraries.

South Dakota: Limiting the rate of tax levy in the several taxing districts the State, and fixing penalties for violation thereof.

Maximum levy for common school districts, 10 mills on the dollar; for indendent districts, 15½ mills on the dollar. By three-fourths vote of qualified ctors of a taxing district levy may be increased above limits herein named. Ch. 292, Mar. 11, 1915.

South Dakota: Amending sec. 120, ch. 135, acts of 1907, relating to the duties school district boards.

Reduces tax which district may levy from 2 per cent of taxable property to per cent of such property. Increases minimum term required from six to even months. Ch. 212, Mar. 10. 1917.

Tennessee: See N (a), High schools.

Texas: Proposing an amendment to sec. 3, art. 7, of the constitution of the tate of Texas, authorizing the levy and collection of an ad valorem county ax not to exceed 50 cents on the $100 valuation of property for the maintenance of the public schools of the county, and authorizing the levy and colction of an ad valorem district tax not to exceed $1 on the $100 valuation f property for the maintenance of the public schools of the district.[1] H. J. R. No. 30, p. 287, Apr. 1, 1915.

Texas: Providing for an additional ad valorem school tax in cities and incororated towns and villages.

Such additional tax to be levied when voted by majority of tax-paying voters voting at an election. Ch. 169, Mar. 30, 1917.

Texas: See also M (b), Kindergartens; S (a), Libraries, general.

Utah: Amending sec. 1891 x 27, Compiled Laws of 1907, as amended by ch. 96, Acts of 1913, relating to tax levy in county school districts of the first class.

Rates fixed as follows: In county district having $20,000,000 or more of valuation, not exceeding 4$\frac{1}{10}$ mills on the dollar; $15,000,000 to $20,000,000, not exceeding 4$\frac{7}{10}$ mills; $10,000,000 to $15,000,000, not exceeding 5$\frac{1}{10}$ mills; $5,000,000 to $10,000,000, not exceeding 5$\frac{6}{10}$ mills; less than $5,000,000, not exceeding 6 mills. Ch. 111, Mar. 22, 1915.

Utah: Amending sec. 1936, Compiled Laws of 1907, as amended by ch. 29, Acts of 1913, relating to levy for school purposes in cities of first and second classes.

Reduces rate of taxation. In cities of the first class and cities of the second class having valuation of $20,000,000, tax levy for the maintenance of schools and for sites and buildings shall not exceed 3½ mills on the dollar. In cities of the second class having less than $20,000,000 of valuation, said levy shall not exceed 3$\frac{7}{10}$ mills. Ch. 111, Mar. 22, 1915.

Utah: Amending sec. 1936, Compiled Laws of 1907, as amended by ch. 29, Acts of 1913, relating to tax for school purposes in cities of the first and second classes.

Tax shall not exceed 6½ mills on the dollar for the maintenance of schools in cities of the first class and 2½ mills (was 1½ mills) additional for sites and buildings. In cities of the second class levy shall not exceed 10 mills. Ch. 115, Mar. 22, 1915.

Utah: Amending secs. 11 and 12, ch. 31, Acts of 1911, relating to tax levy for high school districts.

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[1] Amendment defeated at election of Nov. 7, 1916.

Reduces maximum levy from 5 mills to 2 mills, but an additional mill may be voted by the qualified electors. Ct. 111, Mar. 22, 1915.

Utah: See also A (c1), County boards; B (e), State aid for elementary education; S (a), Public libraries.

Vermont: Exempting educational and religious corporations not organized for profit and public playground associations from the payment of annual license taxes. Act No. 58, Feb. 20, 1915.

Vermont: See also A (a), Administration and supervision, general; A (d), District boards and officers.

Virginia: Amending sec. 1506 of the Code, relating to State, county, and district school funds.

Increases from 50 cents to 75 cents on the hundred dollars the combined maximum county and district levies for school purposes.
Ch. 197, Mar. 16, 1916.

Virginia: Authorizing the board of supervisors of any county to appropriate out of the general funds of said county to the public schools thereof a sum not to exceed 25 per cent of the amount collected for county purposes during the next preceding year. Ch. 231, Mar. 17, 1916.

Virginia: Authorizing board of supervisors of any county to make appropriations to public schools.

Amount appropriated may not exceed such proportion of total county revenue as the intangible property bears to the total assessed value of property of county. Ch. 452, Mar. 21, 1916.

Virginia: See also B (c), Permanent State school funds.

Washington: See F (c), Teachers' pensions.

West Virginia: Amending sec. 21, ch. 27, Acts of 1908, relating to district school levies.

Increases maximum levy for building purposes from 12½ to 15 cents on the $100 of valuation; increases maximum levy for teachers' fund from 25 to 30 cents on the $100. State aid for district when maximum levy and other available funds are insufficient to pay teachers minimum salary and conduct school six months. In any district which contains an incorporated city or town where a graded or high school is maintained and continued for longer than six months, boards of education may levy a tax in addition to levies specified above. In all other districts where available funds are insufficient to pay necessary teachers minimum salary and conduct school six months, it shall be the duty of the board of education to make additional levy of not exceeding 5 cents on the $100. Ch. 57, Feb. 25, 1915.

West Virginia: See also E (b), Teachers' certificates, general; S (a), Public libraries.

Wisconsin: Amending sec. 926–145, Wisconsin Statutes, relating to special school tax of cities of the third and fourth classes.

Limits levy to 5 mills. Ch. 542, June 29, 1917.

Wisconsin: Amending sec. 16, ch. 459, Acts of 1907, as last amended by ch. 97, Acts of 1911, relating to school boards and common and high schools in cities of the first class.

Tax rate not to exceed 2 7/10 mills, except that in 1918 and 1919 it shall not exceed 2 9/10 mills. (Amended law provided for 2 7/10 mills for general school purposes and 3/10 mill for repairs, furniture, etc.)
Ch. 614, July 10, 1917.

Wisconsin: See also H (e), Consolidation of districts, etc.; N (a), High schools; O (a), Industrial education, general.

Wyoming: Amending ch. 52, Acts of 1913, relating to the raising of revenue by taxation for school purposes.

In the matter of accrediting teachers to receive county funds (county tax must be levied to raise $300 for each accredited teacher) districts continuing high-school work begun by a high-school district shall be entitled to receive such funds. Ch. 159, Mar. 5, 1915.

Wyoming: See also N (a), High schools; S (a), Public libraries.

C (d). Poll Taxes, etc.

California: Abolishing poll taxes. (Constitutional amendment.)
Adopted by voters, Nov. 4, 1914.

New Mexico: See A (c1), County boards.

D. BUILDINGS AND SITES.

(a) General.

Illinois: Giving to districts governed by special charters or special general laws and having less than 500,000 population the right of eminent domain.
H. B. 559, p. 640, June 23, 1915.

Iowa: Repealing sec. 2814, Supplement to the Code, 1913, and sec. 2815 of the Code, and enacting substitutes therefor, relating to the acquiring and condemnation of real estate for school sites, playgrounds, etc.

Increases from 1 acre to 2 acres the amount of land that may be taken for school site; in a city, town, or village, two blocks may now be taken. Five acres may be taken for playgrounds, etc. Consolidated district may take 10 acres. Manner of consolidation prescribed. Ch. 26, Mar. 7, 1917.

Kansas: Authorizing cities of the second and third classes to erect public buildings, and providing for a bond election and tax levy to pay such bonds.

Library or auditorium may be so erected. Ch. 111, Mar. 7, 1917.

Minnesota: Amending sec. 2746, General Statutes of 1913, relating to the powers and duties of school boards.

Authorizes boards to acquire additions to school-house sites.
Ch. 25, Mar. 1, 1915.

Montana: Amending sec. 1600, ch. 76, Acts of 1913, providing for the method of selecting, purchasing, exchanging, or selling of schoolhouse sites in school districts of the third class, and relating to schoolhouse sites in general.
Ch. 42, Feb. 19, 1917.

North Dakota: Providing for and regulating the leasing of schoolrooms and school buildings and equipment by boards of education of special school districts in certain cases, and providing for the levying of taxes therefor.
Ch. 138, Mar. 11, 1915.

Oregon: Amending sec. 3969, Lord's Oregon Laws, providing for taking land for school purposes by condemnation proceedings. Ch. 26, Jan. 30, 1917.

South Carolina: Amending No. 373, acts of 1916, relating to the insurance of school buildings, by authorizing the sinking fund commission to carry some of said insurance and to reinsure a part of its liability thereunder, and providing how the premiums therefor shall be paid to the said commission.
No. 187, Feb. 27, 1917.

South Dakota: Empowering any independent school district heretofore created and organized under a special act to take and hold land for a school site.
Ch. 172, Mar. 2, 1915.

South Dakota: Amending act 119, ch. 135, acts of 1907, regulating the removal of schoolhouses. Ch. 221, Mar. 10, 1917.

Tennessee: See A (c1), County boards.

Texas: Granting power to school districts to acquire land for school purposes by condemnation proceedings. Ch. 125, Mar. 29, 1917.

Vermont: Amending sec. 983, Public Statutes of 1906, relating to schoolhouses.

Amendment provides that school directors shall not in any year, without vote of the town, expend exceeding 10 per cent of the "grand list" for schoolhouses. Act No. 67, Mar. 27, 1915.

Washington: Amending sec. 4522, Remington and Ballinger's Annotated Codes and Statutes, relating to schoolhouses and sites in school districts of the second class.

Permits school boards to acquire additions to site upon which schoolhouse has been built. Ch. 116, Mar. 17, 1915.

Wisconsin: Creating sec. 959–69h of the Statutes, authorizing the board of school directors or other board or body having charge and control of the schools of any city of the first class to purchase lands and improvements thereon for school purposes. Ch. 201, June 10, 1915.

Wisconsin: Amending sec. 7, ch. 459, acts of 1907, relating to school boards and common and high schools in cities of the first class.

In lieu of taking bond from a contractor for faithful performance of his contract, board may accept certified check or cash to the amount of 15 per cent of contract price. Ch. 59, Apr. 2, 1917.

D (b). State Aid; Approval of Plans.

Alabama: Amending art. 31, ch. 41, of the Code of 1907, providing State aid for the erection, repair, and equipment of rural schoolhouses.

Increases from $1,000 to $2,000 the annual appropriation made to each of the 67 counties. To receive aid community must raise at least twice as much as amount of State aid sought. Not less than $200 nor more than $1,000 allowed as aid for erection and equipment of new building; not less than $50 nor more than $200 for repairs or equipment. Maximum amount allowed for one-room building, $300; two-room building, $450; three-room building, $600; four-room building, $800; five or more rooms, $1,000. Deed to site made to State. Plans approved by State superintendent of education; construction of building supervised by county board of education. Act No. 629, p. 697, Sept. 22, 1915.

Delaware: Appropriating $1,750 annually for the purpose of repairing, enlarging, building and furnishing schoolhouses for the colored race. Ch. 161, Feb. 26, 1915.

Delaware: See also A (f), Administrative units—districts, etc.

Hawaii: Amending sec. 302, Revised Laws of 1915, relating to the use of school funds.

Unexpected balances of "special fund" allowed to counties and city and county of Honolulu for building purposes shall be carried forward to succeeding appropriation period. Act. No. 8, Mar. 12, 1915.

Illinois: See D (c), Sanitation, etc., of schoolhouses.

Maine: Amending sec. 14, ch. 16, Revised Statutes of 1916, relating to plans for school buildings.

Plans for erecting, reconstructing or remodeling school building must be submitted to State superintendent and State board of health for approval, if expense exceeds $500. Ch. 62, Mar. 22, 1917.

Maryland: See A (a), Administration and supervision, general.

Michigan: Requiring plans for all school buildings and for additions to school buildings, the cost of which shall exceed $300, to be approved by the State superintendent of public instruction, and authorizing the condemnation of schoolhouses under certain conditions. Act No. 17, Mar. 17, 1915.

Minnesota: See B (e), State aid for elementary education; H (e), Consolidation of districts, etc.

Nevada: An act to facilitate the building of rural schoolhouses and to standardize them by supplying plans and specifications to rural school boards.

Duty of State board of education to furnish such plans.
Ch. 167, Mar. 23, 1917.

Oklahoma: See H (e), Consolidation of districts, etc.

Philippines: Appropriating 150,000 pesos to aid the municipal governments in the construction and repair of central school buildings and intermediate school buildings. Act No. 2494, Feb. 5, 1915.

Utah: Amending sec. 1823, Compiled Laws of 1907, as amended by ch. 32, Acts of 1909, creating a commission to supervise the construction of certain school buildings; repealing sec. 2, ch. 32, Acts of 1909, providing for school sites and buildings, and that plans and specifications for school buildings be submitted to a commission herein provided.

State building commission to consist of State superintendent, secretary of State board of health, and State high-school inspector. (The last mentioned displaces an architect.) Said commission is authorized to employ an architect at $8 per day and expenses. Duties of architect: To examine plans of proposed schoolhouses not in cities of first or second class; to inspect buildings at least once during their course of construction; to inspect school buildings of the State when called upon; to act as advisory architect when called upon by school trustees. Ch. 93, Mar. 19, 1915.

Wisconsin: See H (e), Consolidation of districts, etc.

D (c). Decoration; Care; Sanitation; Inspection; Fire Escapes.

See also J (b) Medical inspection.

Connecticut: Amending sec. 1, ch. 40, public acts of 1913, relating to fire escapes on schoolhouses.

Authorizes State board of education to approve of construction of fire escapes, as regards landings of same being on level with floor.
Ch. 258, May 17, 1915.

Connecticut: Amending sec. 2, ch. 81, Public Acts of 1909, concerning the construction and fire-proofing of schoolhouses.

Permits schoolhouses for pupils of elementary grades to be built with three stories above the basement, if of fireproof construction throughout.
Ch. 182, Apr. 24, 1917.

Florida: Requiring all school buildings to be provided with adequate facilities for nature's conveniences. Ch. 6836 (No. 30), May 13, 1915.

Illinois: Amending secs. 4, 15, 35, 114, and 119 of "An act to establish and maintain a system of free schools," approved June 12, 1909.

Makes it the duty of the State superintendent, with State board of health, State architect, and State fire marshal, to prepare specifications for the sanitation of schoolhouses. Makes it the duty of the county superintendent to inspect schoolhouses and visit schools to see that they are conducted as required by law; he may request State board of health, State architect, or State fire marshal to inspect a schoolhouse and on their statement shall condemn unfit building and notify district directors or board of education; he shall also notify township trustees who shall withhold school funds from the district until building is approved. The minimum school term in school districts of less than 1,000 population is increased from 6 months to 7 months. Before erecting or remodeling a schoolhouse, school directors, or board of education in districts of less than 100,000 population, must submit specifications for heating, lighting, ventilating, etc., to county superintendent for his approval.
S. B. 182, p. 635, June 25, 1915.

Indiana: Amending ch. 206, Acts of 1913, providing for sanitary schoolhouses.

Authorizes State superintendent and secretary of State board of health in their discretion to suspend provision prohibiting location of schoolhouses or additions thereto within 500 feet of a steam or interurban railroad or livery stable. Ch. 42, Mar. 3, 1915.

Kentucky: Authorizing boards of education in cities of the second class to create a fund for protection against fire and other casualties and regulating its investment and use. Ch. 58, Mar. 23, 1916.

Kentucky: See also A (c1), County boards.

Maryland: See A (a), Administration and supervision, general.

Missouri: Amending sec. 10797, Revised Statutes, 1909, relating to tax levy for schoolhouses and similar purposes.

Permits school district to levy tax "for building, repairing and maintaining foot bridges over running streams." H. B. 55, p. 501, Apr. 12, 1917.

Nebraska: Amending sec. 3612a, Revised Statutes of 1913, relating to fire escapes, providing that all schoolhouses and buildings used for school purposes of two stories or more in height shall be equipped with fire escapes or toboggans, and repealing said original section. Ch. 73, Mar. 30, 1915.

Nebraska: Relating to fire prevention and control.

All buildings more than two stories in height and having above the first floor rooms or halls designed for the assembly of 15 or more persons shall be equipped with fire escapes. Ch. 179, Apr. 25, 1917.

Nevada: Amending sec. 152, ch. 133, Acts of 1911, relating to the apportionment of the county school fund.

Adds provision that before apportionment is made by State superintendent the county treasurer shall set aside one-half of 1 per cent as a "school insurance fund." Ch. 254, Mar. 26, 1915.

New Hampshire: Relating to the sanitation of schoolhouses.

State board of health shall, upon complaint of any responsible person, investigate the sanitary condition of any schoolhouse or building used for school purposes, and may order changes to make building safe and sanitary or condemn the same. It is made the duty of the school board to make changes directed by the board of health. Ch. 35, Mar. 10, 1915.

New Hampshire: Relating to fire escapes.

Requires fire escapes on certain buildings, including schoolhouses, of three or more stories in height, but this act shall not apply to buildings which contain an approved sprinkler system and stairways inclosed with fireproof walls, or other means of exit approved by selectmen of towns or proper city officials. Ch. 123, Apr. 15, 1915.

North Dakota: Requiring the use of coal produced within the boundaries of the State in State institutions, county buildings and public schoolhouses.
Ch. 78, Mar. 10, 1915.

Rhode Island: Authorizing State board of health to prohibit in public places the use of a common drinking cup or a common towel.
Ch. 1238, Apr. 23, 1915.

South Carolina: Providing for the insurance of public school buildings.

Requires local school authorities to insure buildings of brick or reenforced concrete and buildings not of brick or reinforced concrete when the value is over $300; also contents of buildings. Insurable value to be three-fourths of real value. Forty-five per cent of the risk is to be placed with the Department of State Insurance of Public Property and is to be carried by the Sinking Fund Commission; the remaining 55 per cent is to be placed with "Old Line" insurance companies. Act No. 373, Feb. 29, 1916.

Utah: See D (b), State aid—approval of plans.

Vermont: Amending sec. 5418. Public Statutes of 1906, relating to condemnation of school buildings.

State board of health may condemn buildings unfit for use, but may not require a town in any one year to expend more than 20 per cent of its "grand list" (two-tenths per cent of property valuation) for repairs or rebuilding. Act. No. 195, Mar. 19, 1915.

Vermont: Relating to traffic regulations and the erection of warning signs near schoolhouses.

Requires city and town authorities to erect within 200 feet of a schoolhouse the sign, "Two hundred feet to schoolhouse." No.137 Apr. 11, 1917.

Vermont: See also A (a), Administration and supervision, general.

Washington: Regulating the operation of motor vehicles.

Within 100 yards of any schoolhouse and on school days between 8 a. m. and 5 p.m. such vehicles shall not be driven over 12 miles per hour. There shall be constructed on each approach to schoolhouse and within 100 yards thereof the sign, "School, slow down." Ch. 155, Mar. 15, 1917.

Wyoming: Requiring the construction of fire escapes on and means of egress from buildings.

Applies to buildings three stories or more in height. Is specifically made applicable to the "trustees of all universities and school districts in this State, operating under the general school law of this State." Ch. 18, Feb. 10, 1917.

D (d). Prohibition Districts.

D (e). United States Flag in Schools.

Florida: Requiring the display of the flag of the United States over the capitol, each State institution, county court house and county school building in the State. Ch. 7369, Apr. 21, 1917.

Maine: Amending ch. 182, Public Laws of 1907, providing that flags shall be furnished to public schools. Ch. 176, Mar. 24, 1915.

Minnesota: Requiring school boards and boards of education of all school districts to provide an appropriate United States flag for, and the display thereof at every school in its district. Ch. 313, Apr. 17, 1917.

Nebraska: Requiring the display of the United States flag on school grounds. Ch. 228, Apr. 17, 1917.

Nevada: Amending sec. 3 of "An act to require school trustees to procure and hoist on public school buildings the United States flag," approved Mar. 13, 1909.

Requires deputy State superintendents to see that the provisions of the act are carried into effect. Ch. 152, Mar. 16, 1915.

Vermont: See A (a), Administration and supervision, general.

Virginia: Providing, on petition of a majority of the patrons of any school, for placing a United States flag upon each public schoolhouse or on the grounds thereof, and authorizing school authorities to appropriate money to pay for the same. Ch. 169, Mar. 13, 1916.

Washington: Amending sec. 4482, Remington and Ballinger's Annotated Codes and Statutes, relating to the display of the U. S. flag on school buildings.

Adds provision that school boards shall cause to be observed in school at least once a week appropriate flag exercises at which pupils shall recite the following salute to the flag: "I pledge allegiance to my flag and to the Republic for which it stands. One nation indivisible with liberty and justice to all." Ch. 71, Mar. 15, 1915.

Wisconsin: Amending sec. 436a of the statutes, relating to the display of flags on school buildings.

Requires display of U. S. flag during school hours in seasonable weather. Requirement that flag be displayed in school rooms is omitted.
Ch. 34, Apr. 20, 1915.

D (f). Teachers' Cottages.

Connecticut: Authorizing towns to construct, lease, and maintain homes for teachers employed by such towns and to pay transportation of such teachers to and from school. Ch. 177, Apr. 19, 1917.

Minnesota: Authorizing the school board of certain consolidated districts to acquire property for the purpose of erecting buildings thereon for use by teachers or other employees.

Applies to any consolidated district not containing an incorporated city or village. Ch. 358, Apr. 24, 1915.

New Hampshire: Enlarging the powers of school districts.

Authorizes school districts to provide "buildings to be used for occupancy by the teachers in the employ of such school districts." Ch. 72, Mar. 24, 1915.

North Dakota: Providing for the building of teacherages.

The school board of any district where two or more schools have been consolidated may build and equip a dwelling for the use of the teachers of the district. On petition of a majority of the voters of the district, school board must provide such dwelling. S. B. 250, p. 206 Pop. Ed., Mar. 9, 1917.

E. TEACHERS IN ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

(a) Teachers: Qualifications, General; Examination Fees.

Michigan: See A (b1), State boards; E (b), Teachers' certificates, general.

Ohio: See B (e), State aid for elementary education.

Oregon: Amending sec. 4, ch. 58, Acts of 1911, relating to teachers' certificates.

Fixes fees for such certificates. Ch. 115, Feb. 17, 1915.

Oregon: Amending sec. 1, ch. 165, Acts of 1913, relating to professional training required of elementary teachers.

Required elementary teachers' training course is increased in length from 6 weeks to 12 weeks. Ch. 140, Feb. 15, 1917.

Tennessee: Amending sec. 8, ch. 40, Acts of 1913, providing for the State certification of public school teachers.

Amendment exempts from the provisions of the act teachers employed by boards of education in cities of over 9,500 population and in cities having between 3,980 and 4,047 inhabitants. Ch. 79, May 5, 1915.

Tennessee: Amending sec. 7, ch. 40, Acts of 1913, providing for the State certification of public school teachers.

Provides that no applicant shall be charged a fee for receiving a teachers' license; expenses of holding examinations shall be paid out of the public school fund. Ch. 103, May 17, 1915.

Washington: Amending secs. 4641 and 4642, Remington and Ballinger's annotated Codes and Statutes, relating to the time of holding teachers' examinations.

Time changed from May, August, and December to August, November, and March for third, second, and first grade examinations; from May and August to March and August for examinations for professional and life certificates.
Ch. 162, Mar. 18, 1915.

E (b). Teachers' Examinations and Certificates, General.

Alabama: Authorizing the State board of examiners to issue first-grade certificates to graduates of certain institutions of higher learning of this and other States; providing for the issuance of certificates to persons holding certificates granted in other States; authorizing the extension of the terms of certificates under certain conditions, and repealing section 1723 of the Code.

Said board may issue first-grade certificates without examination to graduates of "Class A" normal schools of Alabama and to graduates of such other institutions of higher learning of this and other States as maintain departments for teacher-training which meet requirements designated by said board. A first-grade, a second-grade, or a third-grade certificate may be issued to the holder of a certificate of equal grade issued in another State. Examiners may extend from year to year for not exceeding four consecutive years a first-grade, second-grade, or third-grade certificate, if holder has attended an institution of higher learning for at least six weeks and pursued a course of study approved by examiners. Repealed section provided for holding special examinations.
Act No. 64, p. 113, Feb. 17, 1915.

California: Amending secs. 1519 and 1519a of the Political Code and adding thereto secs. 1519b, 1519c, 1519d, 1534, and 1696b, relating to the powers and duties of the State board of education and of the superintendent of public instruction, and to the duties of teachers.

Changes arrangement and order of secs. 1519 and 1519a. New sections herein created were formerly parts of sec. 1519. Other minor changes. When credentials of applicant for high-school certificate or special certificate are not acceptable, State board of education may provide examination for applicant. Said board may employ professional experts to conduct examinations for special credentials and high-school credentials. Board is authorized to create a commission of credentials. Ch. 540, May 18, 1917.

California: Amending secs. 1771, 1772, and 1775 of the Political Code, relating to the powers and duties of the county board of education.

Amendments relate to the issuance of teachers' certificates. Elementary certificates which county boards may grant are made valid in intermediate schools (seventh and eighth grades, and ninth grade if holder of certificate has had two years of college work or one year of such work above normal course). The county board may also issue "preliminary" elementary, secondary, and special certificates to persons to do cadet-teaching without salary. The issuance of special certificates must now have the approval of the State board of education. In addition to subjects previously required for elementary certificates, examination in either elementary physics, elementary chemistry or biology is now required. Ch. 470, May 22, 1915.

California: Amending secs. 1663, 1771, and 1775 of the Political Code, relating to the classification of schools, the powers of county boards of education and the granting of teachers' certificates.

Provides for county certificates for special teachers of deaf and atypical children, and classes in citizenship, oral expression, library craft, commercial Spanish, and vocational guidance. Holder of a certificate issued for a limited period may, after a year of successful experience, have the same renewed for six years. County board of education, before July 1 each year, shall prescribe course of study for ensuing year. Diploma from an accredited university and a preliminary certificate with one year of experience are added to credentials upon which a six-year elementary certificate may be granted. No librarian shall be employed for more than two hours a day in a high school unless he or she holds a high-school certificate or a special certificate in library craft.
Ch. 699, May 29, 1917.

Florida: Amending sec. 353, art. 2, General Statutes of 1906, relating to the examination of teachers.

Two such examinations to be held each year, one in June and one in September. Ch. 7370, May 7, 1917.

Florida: Providing for the examination and certification of teachers; prescribing the requirements for the different teachers' certificates; creating a State board of examiners, prescribing their duties and providing for their compensation and expenses. Ch. 7372, June 9, 1917.

Idaho: Amending secs. 89, 90, 91 (as amended by sec. 12, ch. 115, Laws of 1913), 93 (as amended by sec. 14, ch. 115, Laws of 1913), 98, 99, 100, 102 (as amended by sec. 15, ch. 115, Laws of 1913), 103 (as amended by sec. 16, ch. 115, Laws of 1913), 105, and 106, ch. 159, Laws of 1911; amending ch. 168, Laws of 1913; repealing secs. 96 and 104, ch. 159, Laws of 1911, all relating to the certification of teachers.

As amended, requires examination for both State and county certificates to be held at same time. Adds State high-school certificates to classes of State certificates that may be issued. State high-school certificates shall be valid in all grades from seventh to twelfth; county certificates shall be valid in the elementary grades. State board of education may make rules for giving credits for requirements for the various certificates. "Oral expression" is added to list of special subjects for which certificates may be granted; like applicants for other certificates, candidates for special certificates must now have credit in examination on Idaho civil government, including school laws, and State manual of course of study. Three-year certificates are omitted from list of high-school certificates. New requirements for one-year high-school certificate renewable for 2 years after 8 months' experience: at least 2 years' approved normal school or college work above high-school grade; course must include at least 2 full semesters of professional work. Requirements for 5-year high-school certificate: Graduation from an approved college or university with satisfactory evidence of not less than 14 months' successful experience, or completion of not less than 2 years of normal school or college work above high-school grade with not less than 30 months' successful experience; such normal or college work must include not less than 3 semesters of professional work. Requirements for high-school life certificate: Graduation from an approved college or university including at least 4 semesters of professional work, with at least 21 months' successful experience; or life certificate may be issued to holder of a high-school 5-year certificate with at least 5 years' experience. Minor changes are made regarding fees for certificates.

Applicants making 10 per cent above passing grade on ay subjects, but failing to pass examination, shall be entitled to credit on such subjects for 12 months if remaining subjects are passed within that time. State board of education may make rules for recording on certificates statements of additional qualifications of which holders may give evidence.

All county certificates (was first and second grade only) shall be valid in any county where certified copy of the same is filed. The experience required for a second-grade county certificate is reduced from 8 to 7 months; so of first grade. In order to have credits transferred from a second-grade to a first-grade certificate holder must have attended a professional school for at least six weeks and received credits in at least four subjects (was two subjects). Section 104, chapter 159, Laws of 1911, providing for the issuance of special third-grade certificates when the supply of teachers is insufficient, is repealed; when the supply of teachers is exhausted, county superintendent may endorse certificates or diplomas from other counties or States. (Word "diplomas" in this provision is new.) In the case of a revocation of a county certificate by county superintendent, aggrieved teacher may appeal to State board of education (was State superintendent). Ch. 153, Mar. 16, 1915.

Illinois: Amending sec. 6 of "An act to provide for the certification of teachers," approved June 28, 1913.

Provides that second-grade county certificates may be renewed indefinitely for 2-year periods upon evidence of successful teaching and professional growth. Authorizes holder of county high-school certificate to teach in seventh and

eighth grades (thus providing teachers for "junior high schools.") Authorizes acceptance of "certified credits" from applicants to teach special subjects.
H. B. 886, p. 645, June 23, 1915.

Indiana: Providing for the examination and certification of teachers.

County superintendent shall hold examinations on last Saturday in January, March, April, May, June, July, August, and October; questions furnished by State board of education; no examination shall extend over more than two days; applicant must file certificate of good moral character. Applicants for licenses in high-school subjects and special branches shall have their manuscripts sent to State superintendent for grading; applicants for licensee in elementary subjects may elect to have their manuscripts graded by State superintendent for State license or by county superintendent for county license. County license valid in county where issued; State license valid throughout the State if registered by county superintendent where school is to be taught. Fee for sending manuscript to State superintendent, 75 cents, to be used by State superintendent to pay expenses of grading. County superintendent shall give teachers their "success grades" in teaching; for successful applicants whose papers have been forwarded to the State superintendent, county superintendent shall forward success grades after State superintendent has graded papers.

Applicants for elementary license shall be examined in spelling, reading, writing, arithmetic, geography, English grammar, physiology and scientific temperance, United States history, literature, the science of education, and such additional branches as they may be required to teach. Applicants for high-school license shall be examined in as many subjects as they desire to take from list offered by State board of education, but all shall be examined in science of education. Applicants for supervisor's and special teacher's licenses shall be examined in such subjects as they elect to supervise or teach. State board of education shall determine grades and averages required for licenses; 12-month, 24-month, and 36-month licenses may be issued according to grades made. County superintendents may issue temporary county permits, good until next examination, to person having required training and not having failed on examination during the year. Any person receiving two successive 36-month licenses may receive a professional license valid for eight years. Upon examination held by State board of education, a person having taught six years under a 36-months' license shall be exempt from further examination, but ceasing to teach for one year, unless teacher is physically unable or unless attending a university, college, or normal school, shall terminate exemption; county certificates shall exempt only in county where issued; if teacher wishes to teach higher or other branches than those for which examination was taken, exemption shall not apply to such branches. County superintendent shall determine the success grades of teachers in township schools; superintendents of incorporated school cities and towns shall determine success grades therein; superintendents shall visit schools to observe work of teachers; on appeal State superintendent may review success grading. County superintendent shall keep record of licenses issued and revoked. State superintendent shall keep a record of all fees received and licenses issued by him and shall report annually thereon to the governor.
Ch. 171, Mar. 10, 1915.

Iowa: Amending sec. 2734–c, supplement to the code, relating to examinations for teachers' certificates.

Provides for an additional examination in August. Sch. laws, 1915, p. 21.

Iowa: See also A (b1), State boards.

Kansas: Providing for the issuance of teachers' certificates.

State board of education is authorized to hold examinations and grant teachers' certificates valid throughout the State. Every certificate, diploma, or other document issued as a teacher's certificate by the State board of education or State normal school must be registered by superintendent of county or by clerk of school board of city of first or second class in which holder contracts to teach. Three-year certificates may be issued upon satisfactory examination in subjects prescribed by State board, but graduates of four-year high schools and a two-year professional course in an accredited normal school, college, or university may be exempted from examination or part thereof; such certificates shall be valid in any elementary school, and State board may validate them for high schools; may be renewed for three-year periods upon meeting requirements of State board. Three-year cerificates renewable for life may be issued upon examination prescribed by State board, but graduates of a four-year high school and of a four-year course in an accredited normal school, college, or university may be exempted from examination; certificates valid in any elementary or high school; renewable for life if holder has taught successfully for two years and met requirements of State board; life certificates to lapse if holder ceases to teach for three years, but State board may revive lapsed life certificates. State board may issue life diplomas to teachers of eminent ability who meet requirements for three-year certificates and who have taught five years, two of which shall have been in Kansas. Certificates authorizing holders to teach special branches may be issued to persons who by examination or otherwise show qualification to teach the same; valid in subject specified thereon and renewable from year to year as determined by State board. Normal training certificates may be issued to graduates of normal training courses in high schools and accredited academies; valid in elementary schools for two years and may be renewed for two-year periods; examination for such certificates held annually in May by county board of examiners; questions furnished by State board and papers returned to State department for grading; each applicant shall pay a fee of $1; each school participating shall remit $7 to State superintendent. Three-year elementary certificates may be issued to persons holding first-grade certificates issued by county board of examiners or to persons holding certificates issued in cities of first or second class, if such persons have completed a four-year high-school course and a two-year course in an accredited normal school, college, or university; in lieu of such two-year course evidence of four years of successful experience may be accepted; such certificates valid in elementary schools of State and renewable for three-year periods. After September 1, 1916, no person shall teach in a four-year accredited high school who does not hold a certificate as high-school teacher issued by State board of education or a State normal school; holders of valid certificates who are teaching in accredited four-year high schools at the time this act takes effect are exempt from this provision. State board may issue temporary certificates in case of scarcity of teachers.

Boards of county examiners may issue first-grade, second-grade, or third-grade county certificates valid for three years, two years, and one year, respectively; second-grade certificates may be indorsed and validated by any county superintendent; first-grade certificates shall be so indorsed. Branches required in third-grade examination: Spelling, reading, writing, English grammar and composition, geography, arithmetic, United States history, Kansas history, civil government, physiology and hygiene, elements of agriculture, elementary general science, English classics, and the principles and methods of teaching; a third-grade certificate shall not be issued to any person who has held two third-grade certificates and has taught seven months; applicant must make an average grade of not less than 75 per cent, with no grade less than 60. Requirements for second grade: Applicant must have taught not less than seven months; must pass examination in subjects required for third grade and the elements of music in addition; must have completed a one-year course in an approved high school; must make an average grade of 80 per cent, with no grade less than 60; second-grade certificate may be issued to person without experience if such person has completed a four-year approved high-school course. Requirements for first grade: Applicant must have taught at least 14 months; must pass examination in subjects required for second grade and in English history and the elements of physics; must have completed a two-year course in an approved high school; must make an average of not less than 90 per cent, with no grade less than 75; grades of 90 per cent or more recorded on a normal training certificate or second-grade certificate or received in subsequent county teachers' examinations while such certificate is in force may be applied toward meeting the requirements of a first-grade certificate; a first-grade certificate may be renewed on payment of fee of $1 if holder has attended required number of institutes or received approved professional instruction. Ages required for certificates: Second and third grades, not less than 18; first grade, not less than 20. The high-school credits required for first and second grade certificates may be obtained by resident attendance at an approved high school or by examination in subjects selected from first two years of course prescribed by State board of education. First-grade certificates in force at the time of the passage of this act shall be renewed without requirement of high-school credits provided for in this act.

Secs. 7495, 7497, 7523, 7527, 7779, and 7848 of the General Statutes of 1909; secs. 1 and 2, ch. 268, session laws of 1913, and all other acts and parts of acts in conflict herewith are repealed. Ch. 298, Mar. 12, 1915.

Kansas: Repealing sec. 9046, General Statutes of 1915.

Repealed section authorized common-school districts employing 10 or more teachers to certificate their own teachers. Ch, 279, Mar. 6, 1917.

Kansas: See also A (b1), State boards; E (e), Recognition of diplomas; G (d), Teachers' institutes and summer schools; N (a), High schools.

Maine: Amending sec. 3, ch. 58, Public Laws of 1913, relating to the State certification of teachers of public schools.

Requirement that persons eligible for State certificates shall have completed a standard high-school or academy course is amended to permit State superintendent, on satisfactory evidence, to accept the "equivalent of said standard secondary school course." Ch. 74, Mar. 11, 1915.

Maryland: See A (a), Administration and supervision, general.

Michigan: Amending sec. 5, Act No. 147, Public Acts of 1891, as last amended by Act No. 231, Public Acts of 1913, relating to the certification of teachers.

Amendment provides that the county board of school examiners shall grant no certificate under this act unless applicant shall have had at least six weeks' work in a State, county, or city normal school or school approved by State superintendent, but this provision shall not apply to persons having had one-half year's work in a school maintaining four years' work above high school, nor to persons having taught at least five months prior to July 1, 1916. No person over 21 years old not a citizen of the United States shall receive a certificate. Act No. 7, Mar. 9, 1915.

Mississippi: An act to amend secs. 4539 and 4540 of the Mississippi Code of 1906, changing the manner of holding teachers' examinations and defining the public school curriculum. Ch. 187, Apr. 3, 1916.

Mississippi: Amending sec. 4543 of the Mississippi Code of 1906 by adding certain subjects to the list on which teachers are examined.

Adds theory and practice of teaching, elementary algebra, advanced English, general science, and modern history to list on which applicants for first grade license must be examined. Adds for second grade health and sanitation, history of Mississippi, civics, and elementary agriculture. Provides for licenses for teachers of special subjects, as music, normal training, etc. Ch. 188, Apr. 5, 1916.

Missouri: Amending sec. 10942, Revised Statutes, 1909, as amended in 1911 (p. 409), relating to the renewal of certificate.

Only a first-grade certificate may be renewed an unlimited number of times. H. B. 566, p. 520, Apr. 9, 1917.

Missouri: See also B (e), State aid for elementary education.

Montana: See G (c), County and local normal schools.

Nevada: Amending sec. 28, ch. 133, Acts of 1911, relating to teachers' life diplomas.

Empowers State board of education to grant a life diploma to any resident of the State who shall present evidence of having taught successfully and continuously for a period of 72 months, 24 (was 36) of which must have been in the State. Ch. 117, Mar. 13, 1915.

Nevada: Amending sec. 3266 (sec. 28, School Code of 1915) of an act approved March 20, 1911, as amended March 13, 1915, relating to life diplomas of teachers.

Reduces from 72 to 60 months the amount of successful experience for such diploma. Ch. 91, Mar. 14, 1917.

New Jersey: Amending an act (1913) to amend an act entitled "An act to establish a thorough and efficient system of free public schools," etc., approved October 19, 1903.

State boards of examiners of teachers to consist of commissioner of education, one assistant commissioner, principals of State normal schools, one county superintendent and one city superintendent; assistant commissioner, county superintendent and city superintendent to be designated by State board of education. Board to examine teachers, grant State certificates and revoke the same under rules of State board of education. Ch. 177, Mar. 17, 1914.

New Mexico: Relating to the certification of teachers and repealing secs. 3 and 4, ch. 97, Laws of 1907.

State board of education authorized to issue three grades of elementary certificates. Such certificates shall be issued upon examination in such subjects as board may elect, or upon presentation by applicant of grades in subjects required by board from any of the educational institutions of the State. Board shall make rules governing examinations which shall be conducted by county superintendent; papers shall be forwarded to State superintendent for grading; State superintendent may expend $1,200 per annum for assistance in grading. Holder may teach in any elementary school of the State. Third grade valid for one year, second grade for two years, first grade for three years; third grade not renewable; first and second grades renewable under rules of State board. Boards of education of incorporated cities and towns may issue certificates valid in city or town where issued. State board may issue State teachers' professional certificates. Holders of certificates who possess a certificate of attendance at a county normal institute or summer school shall be entitled without further examination to teach for the period designated therein. Said board may indorse certificates issued in other States and may grant certificates of first, second, or third grade to persons having completed approved courses in institutions of the State or other schools designated by board. State board may issue special certificates to teachers of music, drawing, kindergarten or primary subjects, agriculture, manual training, domestic science, and commercial branches. Provision for county teachers' certificates is repealed. Ch. 81, Mar. 18, 1915.

New Mexico: See also G (b), State normal schools.

North Carolina: Establishing a State board of examiners and institute conductors.

Board to consist of three men and three women appointed by the governor; State superintendent chairman. Board to have entire control of examining, accrediting without examination, and certificating all applicants for position of teacher, principal, superintendent or assistant superintendent in the elementary and secondary public schools of the State, but second and third grade certificates shall be under control of county superintendent or city superintendent. Examination questions prepared by board and examinations conducted by county superintendent; papers returned to board. Board shall plan and direct, and members shall conduct, county teachers' institutes. Ch. 146, Mar. 5, 1917.

North Carolina: See also B (e), State aid for elementary education.

Ohio: Amending sec. 7822 and repealing sec. 7822-1 of the General Code relating to professional training of teachers.

Applicants for a one-year elementary certificate shall be admitted to examination, and if found proficient may be granted a certificate to teach in the public schools in the county in which such certificate is granted for one school year without previous professional training, but applicants for a one-year or a three-year elementary certificate who have taught in the public schools for one school year previous to the time of such application, unless said applicant is a graduate of a college or university of approved educational standing, shall possess an amount of professional training consisting of classroom instruction in a recognized institution for the training of teachers, not less than the following: After January 1, 1916, such applicant shall possess not less than six weeks of such instruction; after January 1, 1917, not less than 12 weeks of such instruction; after January 1, 1918, not less than 18 weeks of such instruction; after January 1, 1919, not less than 24 weeks of such instruction; after January 1, 1920, not less than 30 weeks of such instruction; after January 1, 1921, not less than ne year of such classroom instruction, in a recognized school for the training f teachers. H. B. 674, p. 340, May 25, 1915.

Ohio: Amending sec. 7807–6 and supplementing sec. 7807 of the General Code y enacting sec. 7807–8, relating to teachers' life elementary certificates.

State superintendent may renew State provisional certificates. Graduate of our-year high school and two years additional in an approved normal school nay be granted a life elementary certificate after 50 months of successful ex-erience in teaching. Graduate of a four-year high school and a one-year nor-nal course or who has taken an approved course of professional reading in ddition to high-school course may be granted a life elementary certificate after 00 months of successful teaching. S. B. No. 18, p. 458, Mar. 30. 1917.

Ohio: See also A (f), Administrative units—districts, etc.

Oklahoma: Amending sec. 16, art. 14, ch. 219, Acts of 1913, relating to the ertification of teachers.

Extends from January, 1916, to January, 1918, the time after which teachers nust have academic or professional training required in act ameneded. Ch. 282, Apr. 1, 1915.

Oklahoma: See also G (d), Teachers' institutes and summer schools.

Porto Rico: Amending sec. 1 of "An act to establish and regulate the grant-ng of life certificates to the teachers of Porto Rico," Approved Mar. 12, 1914.

Any rural, graded or principal teacher who holds a valid license and who has aught successfully for five years shall receive a life certificate of corresponding rade from the department of education, but teaching prior to July 1, 1905, hall not be reckoned. Act No. 3, Mar. 11, 1915.

Porto Rico: Providing for the certification of teachers for rural schools.

Certificates granted without examination to persons who complete prescribed ourses for rural teachers at University of Porto Rico. No. 4, Apr. 11, 1917.

South Carolina: See A (b1), State boards.

South Dakota: Amending sec. 55, ch. 135, Acts of 1907, relating to first grade eachers' certificates.

Provides that certificate shall be valid in "all branches covered by such certificate." (Was in all grades below high school.) Ch. 167, Feb. 23, 1915.

South Dakota: Providing for the issuance of State teachers' certificates by he superintendent of public instruction. Ch. 219, Mar. 10, 1917.

Tennessee: Amending sec. 6, ch. 40, Acts of 1913, relating to the qualifications f teachers.

Each teacher who holds an elementary or high-school certificate with an verage grade of 85 per cent or more issued by the State superintendent shall e exempt from further examination, if he does not discontinue teaching for a eriod of three successive years. Holdder of second-grade elementary or high-chool certificate issued by the State superintendent may have the same re-ewed, if he attends and does creditable work in three or more courses in a ummer school approved by the State board of education; renewed for two ears. Ch. 141, Apr. 7, 1917.

Vermont: See A (a), Administration and supervision, general.

Washington: Relating to the certification of teachers, fixing the basis and ualifications for certification, and amending secs. 4643, 4644, 4650, and 4653, emington and Ballinger's Annotated Codes and Statutes.

List of certificates authorized for the common schools is changed. Follow-ng common-school certificates now authorized: (a) Second-grade elementary ertificate, first-grade elementary certificate, and life certificate. Applicant or second-grade elementary certificate must pass examination in reading, rammar, penmanship and punctuation, history of the United States, geography, rithmetic, physiology and hygiene, orthography and State manual and must ave had nine weeks of approved professional training; may be twice renewed holder has attended nine weeks of professional training in an accredited institution and has done satisfactory work in at least three subjects. Applicant for first-grade elementary certificate must have taught nine months and must have had at least one year of professional training; must have same credits as for second grade and must also pass examination in nature study, drawing, juvenile and general literature, agriculture, civics, physical geography and music, but State board of education may accept two substitutes for two of above subjects; grades of 85 per cent in accredited institutions may be accepted in lieu of examinations; this certificate valid for five years and may be renewed for like period if holder has attended 18 weeks of professional training and done satsfactory work in three subjects. Applicant for life certificate must have taught 45 months, must have done at least 12 semester hours in professional study, and must pass examination in specified subjects or show credits of 85 per cent or more therein in accredited institutions. Qualifications fixed for teachers of special subjects. After September 1, 1921, no person shall be eligible to certificate who has not completed the work of a four-year high school; this provision not to affect outstanding certificates.

Ch. 48, Mar. 9, 1917.

West Virginia: Repealing secs. 131½ and 132, ch. 27, Acts of 1908, renumbering secs. 80 and 90 of said chapter to become 81 and 83 respectively; renumbering sec. 88, ch. 66, Acts of 1911, to become sec. 95; renumbering sec. 92½, ch. 27, Acts of 1911, to became sec. 94; amending secs. 57, 78, 83, 84, 85, 89, 93, 94, 95, 96, 130, 131, 133, 134, 135, and 136, ch. 27, Acts of 1908; amending secs. 82 and 92, ch. 25, Acts of 1909; amending secs. 81, 86, and [illegible] ch. 66, Acts of 1911; amending sec. 87, ch. 69, Acts of 1913, all relating to education.

Repealed sections directing the State board of education to hold at least once a year in each congressional district an examination for State professional teachers' certificates, and provided for two classes of such certificates, the duration of validity of the same, etc.

Amendments: (Sec. 57) Teacher no longer to present certificate to employing board of education in duplicate. (78) General history and bookkeeping omitted from regular curriculum; district boards of education and county high-school boards authorized to establish and maintain in elementary and high-school departments in manual training, home economics, agriculture, commercial branches, and other vocational subjects. (80) Person employed to teach must be of good moral character, physically and mentally able, over 18 years old, and the holder of a valid certificate. (82) Increases from $7,600 to $9,000 the appropriation in connection with the certification of teachers. (84) Fixes fees of applicants for certificates and directs that the same be paid into school fund. (85) State superintendent shall prepare and furnish questions; county superintendent shall hold examination, papers returned to State superintendent for grading, such grading to be done by "competent persons actively engaged in school work"; certificate issued by State superintendent, sent to county superintendent and countersigned by him. (87) Subjects required for examination for elementary certificate: Spelling, reading, penmanship, arithmetic, English grammar and language, physiology and hygiene, United States and West Virginia geography, civics, theory and art of teaching, and agriculture. First-grade certificate valid for five years issued to applicant attaining a general average of 90 per cent with no subject below 70 per cent; second-grade valid for three years issued to applicant attaining average of 80 per cent with no subject below 68 per cent; third grade valid for one year issued to applicant attaining an average of 70 per cent with no subject below 60 per cent, but third-grade certificate shall not be issued to same person more than two years in succession. First-grade valid in all schools; second and third-grade elementary certificates valid in all grades of elementary schools, but principal of school must be holder of first grade or equivalent. First-grade elementary certificate renewable on recommendation of county superintendent; at expiration of third five-year period such certificate may be renewed for life. (88) State superintendent may issue the short-course certificate, valid for three years, to those having completed the short course in the State normal school or branch thereof, or equivalent course in an institution approved by the State board of education; such certificate valid in elementary schools and may be renewed for one three-year period. (89) State superintendent may issue normal school certificates alid for five years in elementary and high schools to graduates of the diploma ourse of State normal school and branches, or of the diploma course of the West Virginia collegiate institute or of the diploma course of any school of his or other State approved by the State board of education. (90) High-chool certificates may be issued by State superintendent to applicants passng a satisfactory examination in ten subjects designated by State board f education. Said certificate may be granted to graduate of West Virginia niversity or of college or university of this or other State approved by State oard of education, but collegiate course of such institution must have inluded not less than 20 semester hours in education; such certificate valid n high or elementary schools; such certificate renewable for five-year periods nd at end of third five-year period may be renewed for life. (91) Superisors' certificates valid for five years shall be issued by State superintendent o applicants who have taught not less than three years on a first-grade ertificate or equivalent and who have passed an examination in such subects as may be designated by State board of education. Such certificates nay be granted to graduates of approved institutions with not less than 20 emester hours in education, if said graduates have had at least three years' xperience in teaching or supervising. Renewable in five-year periods. (92) tate superintendent may issue special certificates to kindergarten teachers, rimary teachers, and teachers of special subjects, as music, drawing, etc.; ertificate issued upon examination or completion of course approved by State oard of education; valid throughout the State in subject covered; renewable or five-year periods. (93) When a holder of a first-grade certificate or quivalent has taught or done active school work for ten years while holding uch certificate, State superintendent may, upon recommendation of State board f education, issue to such person a certificate valid for life in any teaching or upervisory position in the State. (96) State superintendent may revoke any eacher's certificate for cause; county superintendent shall report teacher's imnorality or neglect of duty to State superintendent. (130) State board of ducation composed of State superintendent and five persons engaged in ducational work, appointed by said superintendent; no two from same conressional district and not more than three from same political party; term f appointive members, five years, one being appointed each year. (131) aid board shall perform duties heretofore performed by State board of exminers and in addition shall prescribe courses of study for elementary and igh schools. They shall also prescribe subjects in which applicants shall be xamined for kindergarten, primary, high-school and supervisors' certificates nd for all special certificates; at request of superintendent, they may asist in the preparation of questions for examinations. (132) State certificates nd all those of rank of first grade in force at passage of this act shall coninue valid and at their expiration may be renewed by State board. (133) ompensation of appointive members of board, $5 per diem for not to exceed 25 ays in a year. (134) Said board shall keep proper records and shall report nnually to State superintendent. Ch. 56, Feb. 26, 1915.

Wisconsin: Creating sec. 450-6 of the Statutes, relating to the issuance and enewal of teachers' certificates.

County or city superintendent may, in the issuance of county or city certifiates, accredit reading done from the list of books of the State teachers' readng circle. Ch. 220, June 10, 1915.

Wisconsin: Prescribing the qualifications of applicants and regulating the ranting of county and city teachers' certificates.

After September 1, 1919, every public school teacher must have had at least wo years of approved high-school work and one year of professional training; fter September 1, 1921, four years of high-school work and one year of proessional training. Powers of State board of examiners as provided by law re not limited by this act. When supply of legally qualified teachers is exausted, county or city superintendent, with approval of State superintendent, ay issue necessary number of certificates on examination.
Ch. 269, May 23, 1917.

Wisconsin: Creating sec. 454a, and amending sec. 20, 23, Wisconsin Statutes, elating to State teachers' licenses.

Persons applying for a teachers' license on the basis of work done in, or raduation from, an institution located outside of Wisconsin shall pay a fee of $1 for the examination of paper records, etc., and an additional $1 for the license, in case the same is granted. Ch. 403, June 13, 1917.

Wyoming: See A (b1), State boards.

E (c). Teachers' Examinations and Certificates, Special.

California: Amending sec. 1791 of the Political Code, relating to the powers and duties of city, or city and county, boards of examiners.

Omits special certificates from those for which board may hold examinations. Ch. 488, May 24, 1915.

California: See also E (b), Teachers' certificates, general; G (b), State normal schools.

Idaho: See E (b), Teachers' certificates, general.

Indiana: See E (b), Teachers' certificates, general.

Iowa: See O (a), Industrial education, general.

Kansas: See E (b), Teachers' certificates, general.

Maine: See M (b), Kindergartens.

Maryland: See A (a), Administration and supervision, general.

Michigan: Amending sec. 2, Act No. 166, Public Acts of 1901, as amended, relating to the certification of teachers of special subjects.

Amendment provides for the certification of teachers of domestic science and art, manual training, and physical training; authorizes State superintendent to accept credentials for such subjects and for music from any institution whose course of study is approved by him. Act No. 194, May 11, 1915.

Michigan: Defining the legal qualifications of kindergarten, primary, music, domestic science and art, manual training, commercial, physical training, and drawing teachers.

Qualifications required of kindergarten and primary teacher: Graduation from two-year kindergarten training course and teacher's certificate or diploma from a reputable college or four-year high school. Qualifications required of teacher of music, domestic science and art, manual training, commercial branches, physical training or drawing: Completion of two-year course in subject to be taught, such course to be completed in University of Michigan, any State normal school, any college incorporated under the laws of the State, or any institution acceptable to the superintendent of public instruction. Act No. 265, May 10, 1917.

Mississippi: See E (b), Teachers' certificates, general.

Missouri: See O (a), Industrial education, general.

New Mexico: See E (b), Teachers' certificates, general.

North Carolina: See M (b), Kindergartens.

Oklahoma: See M (b), Kindergartens.

Washington: See E (b), Teachers' certificates, general.

West Virginia: See E (b), Teachers' certificates, general.

Wisconsin: See O (a), Industrial education, general.

E (d). Teachers' Certificates: Validity; Endorsement; Registration; Revocation.

Alabama: See E (b), Teachers' certificates, general.

Maryland: See A (a), Administration and supervision, general.

Mississippi: An act to authorize the State board of examiners to issue professional licenses to graduates of certain institutions of higher learning in this State; to provide for the issuance of teachers' licenses to holders of certificates in other States and graduates of colleges of other States; to authorize the extension or renewal of licenses in certain cases and to repeal conflicting laws. Ch. 181, Apr. 3, 1916.

New Mexico: See E (b), Teachers' certificates, general.

South Dakota: Amending sec. 15, ch. 135, Acts of 1907, as amended by sec. 2, ch. 140, Acts of 1909, relating to teachers' certificates.

Authorizes State superintendent to accept (among other certificates) primary certificates issued in other States. Ch. 174, Mar. 4, 1915.

Texas: Amending sec. 2814, Revised Statutes, 1911, so as to confer on the State superintendent the authority, upon satisfactory evidence, to reinstate a teacher's certificate theretofore canceled by him, and giving the right of appeal to the State board of education. Ch. 157, Mar. 30, 1917.

Vermont: See A (a), Administration and supervision, general.

West Virginia: See E (b), Teachers' certificates, general.

E (e). Teachers' Certificates: Recognition of Normal School and College or University Diplomas.

Alabama: See E (b), Teachers' certificates, general.

Arkansas: See G (b), State normal schools.

California: See E (b), Teachers' certificates, general.

Florida: Granting teachers' certificates to persons who complete certain courses in the State institutions of higher learning or in the private institutions of higher learning in the State, and prescribing the conditions under which the same may be granted.

Person completing elementary professional course or equivalent in private institution with an average grade of 75 per cent in all studies shall be entitled to third-grade certificate valid for two years. Completing freshman year of normal course with average grade of 75 per cent, second-grade certificate valid for four years. Completing sophomore year of normal course with average grade of 85 per cent, first-grade certificate valid for five years. Private university or college must offer four years above the junior high school and must have a normal course with teaching force, equipment and training facilities approved by State board of education. Ch. 6838 (No. 32), June 4, 1915.

Florida: Providing for the issuance of teachers' certificates to graduates of normal schools and colleges. Ch. 7373, June 7, 1917.

Florida: See also G (d), Teachers' institutes and summer schools.

Kansas: Relating to the certification of teachers by the State normal schools.

Certificates may be issued as follows: Completion of secondary course entitles person to teach for a period of one year; completion of a standard four-year high-school course and the freshman year of normal school entitles to teach three years; completion of standard four-year high-school course and sophomore year of normal school entitles to life certificate to teach in elementary schools and junior and two-year high schools; completion of course leading to degree of bachelor of science in education entitles to a life diploma to teach in any public school, including high schools. Each State normal school shall have power to issue certificates to teach special subjects. Ch. 299, Apr. 3, 1915.

Kansas: See also E (b), Teachers' certificates, general.

Kentucky: See G (b), State normal schools.

Louisiana: See R (b), Educational corporations.

Maryland: See A (a), Administration and supervision, general.

Michigan: Amending sec. 5814, Compiled Laws of 1915, relating to the issuance of teachers' certificates without examination to graduates of colleges offering courses approved by the State board of education.

Removes restriction that college must be in Michigan. Act No. 13, Mar. 22, 1917.

Mississippi: See E (d), Validity, etc., of certificates.

New Mexico: See E (b), Teachers' certificates, general.

North Carolina: See B (e), State aid for elementary education.

North Dakota: See G (c), County and local normal schools.

Ohio: See E (b), Teachers' certificates, general.

Oklahoma: Providing for the issuance of teachers' certificates to graduates of certain colleges and the acceptance of credits.

Any graduate of a college of Oklahoma requiring for graduation a four-year course above a four-year high school and maintaining a course in education approved by the State board of education shall, upon proof to the State superintendent that said applicant has completed said course, be granted a life high-school certificate. Credits received in such course shall entitle holder to credits on same subjects in examination for teacher's certificate at any time within three years of receipt of said credits. Ch. 66, Mar. 3, 1915.

Oklahoma: Authorizing the State superintendent of public instruction to issue teachers' certificates valid in the common schools for two years to graduates of district agricultural schools and fully accredited four-year high schools when course of study of such schools is equivalent to course in schools accredited to State university and when school is equipped for teaching agricultural, domestic science, and manual training and when said graduate has completed such a course in psychology and the science of teaching as said superintendent may prescribe. Ch. 114, Mar. 11, 1915.

Oklahoma: Amending sec. 8017, Revised Laws, 1910, relating to the issuance of teachers' certificates by State normal schools.

Provides also for the issuance of certificates to graduates of colleges organized under the laws of Oklahoma and approved by the State board of education. Ch. 241, Mar. 27, 1917.

Texas: Amending sec. 116, ch. 96, acts of 1911, providing for granting teachers' certificates to graduates of approved higher institutions.

Adds approved junior colleges of the State to institutions whose graduates may be granted first-grade certificates. Ch. 8, Feb. 2, 1917.

Washington: Providing for the issuance of teachers' certificates to graduates of accredited schools and colleges.

Directs State board of education to prepare a list of accredited higher institutions within and without the State to whose graduates State superintendent may issue cerificates without examination except in Washington State Manual. Graduates of accredited institutions must have had at least 12 semester hours in professional subjects or stand examination in professional subjects. Entrance and graduation requirements of accredited colleges and universities shall be equal to those of University of Washington; requirements of normal schools shall be equal to advanced courses of Washington State normal schools. Ch. 161, Mar. 18, 1915.

Washington: See also E (b), Teachers' certificates, general.

West Virginia: See E (b), Teachers' certificates, general.

Wisconsin: Repealing sec. 452c of the Statutes, relating to renewal of primary teachers' certificates, and amending sec. 387, relating to the University of Wisconsin.

Repealed section provided conditions under which primary certificates could be renewed. Amended section omits provision that graduates of the University after teaching one year may have their diplomas countersigned by State superintendent to have force and effect of unlimited State certificate. Ch. 229, June 11, 1915.

Wisconsin: Renumbering and amending subsec. 3, sec. 458b–2, Wisconsin Statutes, and creating new subsections of secs. 458b–2 and 20.34, relating to Stout Institute.

Provides for certificating graduates to teach. Ch. 528, June 29, 1917.

E (f). Teachers' Associations; Reading Circles.

West Virginia: See G (d), Teachers' institutes and summer schools.

Wisconsin: Amending subsec. 5 of sec. 172–54 of the Statutes, relating to teachers' institutes and reading circles and making an appropriation therefor.

Provides that not exceeding one-tenth of $9,500 annual appropriation for teachers' institutes and summer schools may be used for the purpose of conducting a State teachers' and a State young people's reading circle, such expenditure to have approval of State superintendent. Ch. 293, June 23, 1915.

Wisconsin: See also E (b), Teachers' certificates, general; G (d), Teachers' institutes and summer schools.

F. TEACHERS: EMPLOYMENT; CONTRACT; APPOINTMENT; DISMISSAL.

(a) General; Tenure, Duties, etc.

Alabama: See A (c1), County boards.

California: Securing to native-born and naturalized citizens of the United States the exclusive right to be employed in any department of the State, county, city and county, and city government in the State.

The act excepts teachers in public schools and in State supported institutions who have declared their intention to become citizens of the United States; also, native-born women who have married foreigners. Does not apply to member of faculty of a State college or university. Ch. 417, May 19, 1915.

California: Authorizing the employment of "home teachers" by school trustees or city boards of education.

Not exceeding one "home teacher" may be employed for each 500 units of average attendance at common schools. Such teacher shall work in the homes of children, instructing both children and adults. Salary of such teacher to be paid from the city or district special school fund. Ch. 37, Apr. 10, 1915.

California: Amending sec. 1696 of the Political Code, relating to the duties of teachers.

Some minor changes as to reports, etc. Ch. 715, May 31, 1917.

Colorado: Providing for the interchange of public-school teachers between Colorado and other States.

Authorizes a school district to exchange for one year a teacher having taught five years therein for a teacher having taught not less than same time in a district of another State; teachers' home district shall pay salary. Ch. 145, Mar. 5, 1915.

Connecticut: Any school committee may authorize the "supervising agent" to employ teachers. When not so authorized, such agent shall make nominations, which may be accepted or rejected by committee. Ch. 316, May 16, 1917.

Hawaii: Providing that preference be given citizens of Hawaii in the employment of teachers. Act 65, Apr. 6, 1917.

Louisiana: See A (a), Administration and supervision, general.

Maine: Providing for the registration of teachers.

On payment of a fee of $3, holder of a teacher's certificate may register in office of State superintendent for a position as teacher anywhere in the State. Ch. 137, Mar. 30, 1917.

Massachusetts: Prohibiting inquiries as to the religious or political belief of applicants for positions in the public schools. Ch. 84, Mar. 17, 1917.

Nebraska: Amending sec. 6773, Revised Statutes of 1913, relating to method of hiring teachers.

Amendment provides that no school board shall pay district money to any teacher after receiving a sworn statement of a school board that the services of such teacher are under previous contract. Ch. 117, Apr. 8, 1915.

Nevada: Empowering the superintendent of public instruction, regents of State University, and school trustees to dismiss certain employees, and forbidding them to engage or employ in the educational department in a professional manner any person other than a citizen of the United States, and prohibiting the State controller and county auditors from issuing any warrants to any person other than a citizen of the United States, and providing a penalty therefor. Ch. 274, Mar. 26, 1915.

Nevada: Repealing sec. 109, ch. 133, Acts of 1911, relating to public schools.

Repeals section which provided that no teacher should receive public school moneys unless he gave instruction in the fish and game laws of the State.
Ch. 21, Feb. 13, 1915.

New Hampshire: Establishing an employment bureau for teachers.

Any person may file in the office of the State superintendent of public instruction an application to teach in the public schools of the State; fee of $2 must accompany application. Any authorized officer or board may apply to State superintendent for information concerning such applicant. Unlawful for a superintendent of city or town schools to accept a fee for securing a teacher position in the public schools for any person. Ch. 156, Apr. 21, 1915.

New Hampshire: Prohibiting the employment of any teacher, janitor, or person in any other capacity in connection with any building used for school purposes when such teacher, janitor, or person is infected with tuberculosis or other communicable disease. Ch. 101, Mar. 27, 1917.

New Jersey: Supplementing an act entitled "An act to establish a thorough and efficient system of free public schools," etc., approved October 19, 1903.

Authorizes State commissioner of education to appoint, with approval of State board of education, a "helping teacher" to aid and direct the teachers of two or more districts. Salaries of such teachers not to exceed $1,500 each per annum. Ch. 149, Mar. 17, 1916.

New York: Amending the public officers' law, the civil service law, and the education law, providing for the removal of officers and employees for treasonable or seditious acts or utterances. Ch. 416, May 8, 1917.

New York: See also O (b), Agricultural schools.

Ohio: Amending sec. 7718 of the General Code, prohibiting the sale of textbooks and school supplies by superintendents, supervisors, principals, or teachers. H. B. No. 420, p. 447, June 2, 1915.

Oregon: Granting to school teachers in merged districts certain protection and providing for relief.

Gives to teachers of district merged with another all the rights of teachers in enlarged district. Ch. 108, Feb. 16, 1915.

Oregon: Amending sec. 4118, Lord's Oregon Laws, regulating contracts with teachers and the resignation of teachers. Ch. 232, Feb. 17, 1917.

Pennsylvania: Amending sec. 2229 of the School Code of 1911, relating to the appointment of superintendents, principals, teachers, etc.

In the appointment of teachers in cities of the first class, appointment must be made from three highest names on the proper eligible list.
Act No. 369, June 4, 1915.

South Dakota: Providing for the registration of teachers and for the assistance of school district boards in securing teachers.

Qualified teachers may on payment of fee of $1 register with the State superintendent of public instruction. Ch. 215, Feb. 23, 1917.

Texas: See A (d), District boards and officers.

Vermont: See A (a), Administration and supervision, general.

Wisconsin: Providing for the exchange of public-school teachers of this State with teachers of other States. Ch. 340, June 4, 1917.

F (b). Teachers' Salaries.

Alabama: See A (c1), County boards.

Connecticut: See B (e), State aid for elementary education.

Delaware: Amending sec. 2300, ch. 71, Revised Code of 1915, relating to attendance of teachers at institutes and fixing a minimum salary of teachers.

Every public school teacher shall attend each day's session of teachers' institute held by county superintendent. Minimum salary of white teacher $45 per month; if teacher has had two years' training at a reputable normal school or college, $50 per month; four years' training, $55 per month. Every teacher must report annually to State board of education; for failure, certificate may be suspended. Ch. 180, Apr. 2, 1917.

Georgia: Providing for the prompt payment of the public school teachers of the State by authorizing the issuance of the governor's warrants and the sale of the same. No. 139, p. 35, Aug. 13, 1915.

Hawaii: Fixing at $40 per month the minimum pay of teachers in the public schools. Act 89, Apr. 17, 1917.

Hawaii: Amending sec. 297, ch. 25, Revised Laws, 1915, relating to the salaries of teachers.

Directs department of education to prepare a teachers' salary schedule. Increases aggregate amount that may be used for paying teachers. Act. 114, Apr. 20, 1917.

Maryland: See A (a), Administration and supervision, general.

Nevada: Amending sec. 104, ch. 133, Acts of 1911, relating to length of school term, etc.

Teacher allowed pay for time when school is ordered closed on account of sickness or epidemic, but for not exceeding 30 days. Ch. 210, Mar. 24, 1917.

New Jersey: Amending sec. 184 of an act entitled "an act to establish a thorough and efficient system of free public schools, and to provide for the maintenance, support, and management thereof," approved October 19, 1903, relating to the custodian of district school funds.

Provides for the payment of district employees (in addition to teachers) by means of a pay roll. Ch. 348, Apr. 19, 1915.

New Jersey: Providing that the salaries of all persons, other than teachers and instructors, employed in any school district comprising a city of the first class shall be paid semimonthly. Ch. 72, Mar. 22, 1915.

New Mexico: See B (d), State taxation for school purposes.

New York: Amending the Greater New York charter, relative to the salaries of the teaching staff of the board of education.

Reorganizes salary schedule. Ch. 627, May 23, 1917.

North Carolina: See B (e), State aid for elementary education.

Ohio: See A (f), Administrative units—districts, etc.; B (e), State aid for elementary education.

Oregon: Preventing discrimination in the payment of salaries between male and female teachers in the public schools. Ch. 99, Feb. 15, 1915.

Pennsylvania: Amending sec. 1210 of the School Code, relating to the salaries of teachers.

Minimum salaries fixed as follows: Holder of provisional certificate, $45 per month; holder of professional certificate or normal school certificate, $55 per month; holder of permanent certificate or final normal school diploma, $60 per month. Act No. 425, July 28, 1917.

Utah: See B (e), State aid for elementary education.

Vermont: See A (a), Administration and supervision, general.

West Virginia: Repealing sec. 27½, ch. 27, Acts of 1908, and amending secs. 28 and 29 of the same chapter, relating to the salaries of public school teachers.

Repealed section fixed minimum salaries as follows: Holder of first-grade certificate, $40 per month; second-grade, $35; third-grade, $30. Amendment provides for minimum salaries as follows: First-grade certificate, $50; second-grade, $40; third-grade, $30. Board of education may lay additional levy not exceeding 5 cents on the $100 to pay minimum salaries herein provided, when funds available from maximum levy allowed by law and from other sources are insufficient. Upon petition of a majority of taxpayers of the subdistrict an additional levy shall be made to extend the term, but such additional levy shall not exceed 5 cents on the $100.

West Virginia: See also C (c), Local taxation.

Wisconsin: Amending paragraph (b), subsec. (5), sec. 2024, Wisconsin Statutes, relating to the apportionment of school funds.

Has effect of raising minimum salary of teachers from $40 to $45 per month. Ch. 284, May 25, 1917.

Wisconsin: See also B (e), State aid for elementary education; N (a), High schools.

F (c). Teachers' Pensions.

Alabama: Authorizing the county board of education or other school governing body in any county having a population of not less than 80,000 nor more than 82,000 to pay pensions to aged and indigent teachers out of the school fund of said county. (Applies to Mobile county.)
Act No. 459, p. 385, Sept. 10, 1915.

Arizona: Amending paragraph 2810, ch. 16, title 11, Revised Statutes, 1913, relating to the retirement of teachers.

Beneficiary must be 60 years old or over and must have taught 30 years, 25 of which must have been in the State. Ch. 16, Mar. 5, 1917.

California: Adding sec. 1455 to the Code of Civil Procedure, relating to the collection by surviving heirs of balances due the estates of deceased annuitants from the public school teachers' retirement salary fund.

Prescribes persons who may receive such balances. Ch. 68, Apr. 6, 1917.

California: Providing for the return to the owners thereof of any funds deducted from teachers' retirement salaries in excess of the amounts directed by law to be so deducted. Ch. 546, May 18, 1917.

Connecticut: Establishing a retirement system for public-school teachers.

Terms defined. "Teacher" includes teacher, principal, supervisor, or superintendent. "Annuity" means payment from teachers' contributions; "pension" means payment from State's contributions. Retirement fund established on July 1, 1917. Teachers entering service after July 1, 1917, shall become members of association; those in service prior to that date may become members at any time before September 30, 1917, or thereafter by payment of back assessments with interest. Teachers over 70 years old, who have taught 40 years in the State and retired prior to June 30, 1917, may be paid a pension of not less than $300. Management of system vested in retirement board of five members as follows: Insurance commissioner, bank commissioner, secretary of State board of education, and two teachers appointed first by governor for terms of four years and thereafter elected by members of retirement as-

ociation. A secretary and clerical help may be employed. (1) "Expense
und" to consist of State appropriations for that purpose. (2) "Annuity
und" to consist of assessments of teachers and interest. Assessment to be 5
er cent of teacher's salary, but not less than $25 nor more than $100 per
nnum. Assessments to cease at end of 30 years, unless teacher elects to pay
urther assessments in order to pay sufficient to secure annuity of $500. (3)
Pension fund" to consist of State appropriations to pay pensions.

" Sec. 6. Any member of the retirement association may retire from service
n the public schools on attaining the age of 60 years or on the completion of
5 years of service in the public schools. Any member of the retirement asso-
iation, if incapable of rendering satisfactory service as a teacher, may, with
he approval of the retirement board, be retired by the employing school board
n attaining the age of 55 years or at any time thereafter. Any member of the
etirement association on attaining the age of 70 years, shall be retired from
ervice in the public schools; provided, if the employing committee shall so
equest in writing, the retirement board may permit the employment of such
ember beyond the age of 70 years, and on the retirement of such member
e shall receive from the State the pension to which he would have been en-
itled at the age of 70. A member of the retirement association, after his
etirement under the provisions of this section, shall be entitled to receive
rom the annuity fund, as he shall elect at the time of his retirement, on the
asis of tables adopted by the retirement board, an annuity, payable in
onthly payments, to which the sum of his assessments under the provisions
f section 5, with regular interest thereon, shall entitle him; or an annuity
f less amount, as determined by the retirement board for the annuitants elect-
ng such option, payable in monthly payments, with the provision that on the
eath of the annuitant, the annuity shall be continued to and throughout the
ife of such person as he shall nominate by writen designation duly acknowl-
dged and filed with the retirement board at the time of his retirement. The
etirement board may offer other benefits of equal value with the benefits
erein provided and the contributor retiring may accept either the benefits
erein provided or one of said alternative benefits in lieu thereof. Any person
eceiving payments of an annuity as provided in this section shall receive with
ach monthly payment of his annuity an equal amount to be paid from the
ension fund as directed by the retirement board. Any teacher who shall have
ecome a member of the retirement association under the provisions of section
, and who shall have served 15 years or more in the public schools of the
tate, not less than 5 of which shall immediately precede retirement, shall, on
etiring as provided in this section, be entitled to receive a retirement allow-
nce as follows: Such annuity and pension as may be due under the provisions
f this section; an additional pension to such an amount that the sum of this
dditional pension and the pension hereinbefore provided in this section shall
qual the pension to which he would have been entitled under the provisions
f this act if he had paid 30 assessments on his average yearly wage for the
years preceding his retirement, with interest thereon at 3 per centum com-
ounded annually; provided, if his term of service in the State shall have
een over 30 years, the 30 assessments shall be reckoned as having begun at
he time of his entering service and as drawing interest at 3 per centum com-
ounded annually until the time of his retirement; and further provided, if
he sum of such additional pension, with the annuity and pension provided for
y this section, is less than $300 in any one year, an additional sum sufficient
o make an annual retirement allowance of $300 shall be paid from the pension
und. If at any time it is impossible or impracticable to consult the original
ecords as to wages received by a member during any period, the retirement
oard shall determine the pension to be paid under the provisions of this section
n accordance with such evidence as it may be able to obtain."

Teacher withdrawing from service shall be entitled to refund of full amount
f assessments paid plus interest. If teacher dies before retirement, refund
hall be paid to executor or administrator of his estate. Amount to be paid
y teacher or to teacher shall be exempt from taxation and legal process.
School boards to notify teachers of their obligations under this act and certify
o retirement board the names and salaries of teachers, changes, etc. To de-
uct teachers' assessments from their salaries. Treasurers of towns to account
onthly for funds. State treasurer to be custodian of funds. Towns and
ities having pension systems may claim exemption from this act. State ap-
ropriation of $40,000 for two years. Ch. 411, May 16, 1917.

Hawaii: Establishing a retirement fund for pensioning retired teachers in the public schools of the Territory of Hawaii, and regulating the collection, management, and disbursement thereof. Act No. 14, Apr. 19, 1917.

Idaho: Authorizing the board of trustees of any independent school district to establish a teachers' retirement fund.

District board may pay out of such fund not to exceed $40 per month to a male teacher over 60 years old. or to a female teacher over 55 years old. Male teacher must have taught 35 years, 15 of which, including last 10, must have been in the district; female teacher must have taught 30 years under like conditions. Board may obtain old-age pension for such teacher. Provision may be made for disabled teacher who has taught 10 years in district. Special levy not exceeding one-tenth of 1 mill may be made to create such fund. In addition board may make assessments of teachers' salaries. When once established, fund can not be abolished by board. Ch. 33, Mar. 13, 1917.

Illinois: Providing a State teachers' pension and retirement fund.

Under this act the board of trustees of the Illinois State teachers' pension and retirement fund consists of the superintendent of public instruction, the State treasurer, and three teachers elected by the contributing teachers. The State treasurer is ex-officio treasurer of the fund. Teachers already employed may or may not elect before September 1, 1920, to become members of the association. Those entering the service for the first time are deemed to accept the terms of the act. Members are divided into three classes: (1) Those having taught 10 years or less; (2) those having taught 10 to 15 years; (3) over 15 years. Assessments upon salaries are as follows: First class, $1 per month for first five months each year; second class, $2 per month for first five months each year; third class, $6 per month for first five months through a period of 10 years in this class. It is provided that assessments shall be withheld from salaries by the governing boards of school districts. An amount sufficient to meet all demands is appropriated from the State common school fund. This amount, until otherwise provided by law. must be equal to a tax of one-tenth of a mill on all taxable property of the State, except property in districts to which the act does not apply. Gifts and bequests may be accepted. A teacher before being retired, must have contributed the full amount of $400 or make up the deficiency. After 15 years of service, a teacher may be retired for disability, but the full $400 must have been contributed or the deficiency made up. Each teacher retiring is entitled to $16 annually for each year taught, but not to exceed $400. No person under 50 years of age may be retired, except for disability. Any teacher ceasing to teach before becoming a member of the third class is entitled to the return of one-half of the amount contributed by him or her. The word "teacher" is defined in the act to include a teacher, teacher-secretary, principal, supervising principal, supervisor, assistant superintendent, or superintendent. Cities of over 65,000 population which have retirement systems of their own are exempt from the provisions of the act. S. B. 135, p. 649, May 27, 1915.

Illinois: Amending sec. 3 of an act to provide for a teachers' pension and retirement fund in cities under special acts, approved June 27, 1913.

Sets apart from the State common school fund, for the benefit of such retirement fund, an amount equal to sum produced by a tax of one-tenth of 1 mill on the dollar in such city. H. B. 947, p. 648, June 29, 1915.

Illinois: Creating and providing for the administration of a State institutions teachers' pension and retirement fund. S. B. 260, p. 748, June 14, 1917.

Illinois: Amending the law providing for teachers' pensions in cities of 10,000 to 100,000 population and governed by special acts.

Minor amendments to conform to other laws providing State funds.
S. B. 491, p. 746, June 26, 1917.

Illinois: See also B (e), State aid for elementary education.

Indiana: Providing for a system of teachers' pensions.

Teachers' retirement fund created. "Permanent fund" consists of (1) gifts and bequests and (2) all other money becoming a part of the fund. "Current fund" consists of (1) interest on permanent or current fund, (2) assessments on teachers' salaries, (3) apportionments from State school tuition

ax. Board of trustees of retirement fund, five members as follows: State superintendent, State auditor, attorney general, and two teachers or supervisors appointed by the governor. State is divided into "units": (1) Each city of over 5,000 population; (2) each county outside of such cities; (3) each State institution subject to the provisions of this act. Any such unit may come under the provisions of the act by petition of a majority of teachers together with a majority of school officials thereof. Any unit already having a pension system may elect to come under the provisions of this act. Any State normal school or State institution may, on petition of majority of board of trustees and teachers of such unit, come under provisions of the act, but trustees shall pay to retirement fund, in addition to contributions of teachers, one-half the sum necessary to meet the annuities and other expenses under the act of that particular unit for the current year. Board of trustees of fund shall serve without compensation, but shall be entitled to expenses when engaged in their duties. Board shall have charge of fund; may receive gifts and bequests; shall receive and receipt for all moneys; shall report annually to governor. State treasurer shall be custodian of moneys, papers, and securities of fund. Board shall pass on all applications for annuities. Assessments of teachers: First 15 years of service, $10 per year; next 10 years, $20 per year; next 10 years, $25 per year; remaining years up to fortieth year, $20 per year; assessments to be withheld from salaries. Teachers coming under the provisions of the act shall pay arrearages at above rates, but they may elect not to claim credit for time already taught and in that event shall not be required to pay such arrearages. Trustees of retirement fund shall apportion to each unit its share of current fund over and above assessments of teachers; State superintendent in making semi-annual apportionment of State school tuition tax shall withhold from each unit a sum equal to one-half amount necessary to meet the demands of such unit for retirement purposes; for State institutions State auditor shall withhold such amount. Investments of funds shall be made in bonds of United States, State, counties, townships, cities, or other municipal corporations, or first mortgages on real estate. Any person having taught 35 years or more in public schools, 12 of which may have been outside of the State, may be retired. Annuities: 35 years of service, $600; 36 years, $620; 37 years, $640; 38 years, $660; 39 years, $680; 40 years, $700. Any teacher may be retired for disability after 25 years of service. Annuities: 25 years of service, $350; increment of $25 per additional year up to thirty-fourth year. Teacher leaving service before retirement shall be entitled to refund of amounts contributed without interest; if teacher dies before retirement, heirs or legatees shall be entitled to such refund. Teacher may be allowed one year in seven for professional study or for disability, but assessments must be paid during such year. Pensions are exempt from legal process, and may not be transferred. Beneficiaries include any regularly employed teacher, teacher-clerk, supervising principal, principal, supervisor, superintendent, or other teacher or instructor regularly licensed and employed.
Ch. 182, Acts of 1915.

Indiana: Amending secs. 3 and 6, ch. 170, Acts of 1907, relating to teachers' pensions in cities of 100,000 population or more.

Raises from 1 cent to 1½ cents on the $100 the tax that shall be levied for benefit of pension fund, but after 10 years school commissioners may reduce tax to 1 cent. Extends benefits of act to eligible teachers who retired prior to March 9, 1907. Ch. 66, Mar. 5, 1915.

Iowa: Authorizing independent school districts having a population of 75,000 or more to retire public school teachers upon annuity; creating a fund for such purpose and a board to administer the same. Ch. 387, Apr. 25, 1917.

Louisiana: See A (a), Administration and supervision, general.

Maine: Increasing from $25,000 to $27,000 the annual appropriation for teachers' pensions. Ch. 79, Mar. 26, 1917.

Maryland: An act to add a new section to ch. 463, Acts of 1912, relating to the retirement of public school teachers in Allegany County.

Extends provisions of the act to apply to any teacher in the State normal school at Frostburg who was, at the time of the passage of the act, a teacher in any public school in Allegany County. Ch. 123, Mar. 31, 1916.

Maryland: See also A (a), Administration and supervision, general.

Massachusetts: Amending secs. 5 and 6, ch. 832, Acts of 1913, and sec. ch. 532, Acts of 1911, relating to the retirement of public school teachers.

Provides that members of the retirement association provided under ch. Acts of 1911, shall have full amount of their contributions with interest transferred to annuity fund provided by this act. Allows credit for teaching prior to June 1, 1912, under certain conditions. Person leaving the service to teach in a vocational school shall not be entitled to refund of contributions made.
Ch. 197, Apr. 22, 1915.

Massachusetts: Amending secs. 4 and 6, ch. 589, Acts of 1908, as amended, relating to the payment of pensions to members of the teaching and supervising staff of the public schools of the city of Boston.

Authorizes the school committee to appropriate for the purpose of paying pensions 7 (was 5) cents on the $1,000 of taxable property.
Special acts, ch. 304, Apr. 27, 1915.

Massachusetts: An act relative to the retirement of teachers and other employees in training schools maintained under the direction of the State board of education.

Provides for pensions for such teachers and employees under existing State law. Ch. 54, Mar. 21, 1916.

Massachusetts: An act relative to refunds to members of the teachers' retirement association who withdraw from the service of the public schools.

If member of association withdraws from service before six annual assessments have been paid, the total aomunt to which such member is entitled to have refunded may be paid to him in one sum; after six assessments have been paid, the amount so refunded shall be in the form of annuity for life based on the contributions of such member, together with regular interest thereon, or in four annual installments, as such member may elect. Ch. 60, Mar. 21, 1916.

Massachusetts: Amending paragraph 2, sec. 1, and sec. 6, ch. 832, Acts of 1913, as amended by ch. 197, Acts of 1915, relating to the retirement system for public school teachers.

Any member of the retirement association on becoming physically or mentally disabled after 20 years of service, and before reaching the age of 60, may be retired. Member so retired may receive an annuity for life in proportion to assessments paid or an "annuity certain" for a definite number of years only, as determined by retirement board. Ch. 233, May 9, 1917.

Massachusetts: Exempting from taxation the pension and annuity funds for the public school teachers in the city of Boston and the pensions and annuities paid therefrom. Ch. 327 (Special Acts), May 14, 1917.

Michigan: Providing for a retirement fund for teachers.

State teachers' retirement fund board to consist of State superintendent and five members appointed by governor; one of whom shall be a woman teacher; term of appointive members, five years, one being appointed each year; no compensation for members, but actual expenses paid; secretary shall receive not exceeding $1,800 per annum; annual meetings required, and special meetings may be called; State treasurer shall be treasurer of fund. Powers of board: To select necessary employees; investigate all matters relating to the operation of this act; require reports from boards, officers, and persons having duties respecting contributions by teachers; draw warrants upon the State treasurer for the payment of annuities; increase, when necessary, contributions of teachers as provided in this act; make rules for carrying out this act, subject to approval of State superintendent. Contributions required of teachers: (1) Teacher having taught 5 years or less in public schools, ½ per cent of salary, but not more than $5 annually; (2) 5 to 15 years, 1 per cent, but not more than $10 annually; (3) more than 15 years, 2 per cent, but not more than $20 annually. Board may increase contributions as follows: First class, ½ per cent to 1 per cent, but not exceeding $10 annually; second class, 1 per cent to 2 per cent, but not exceeding $20 annually; third class, 2 per cent to per cent, but not exceeding $30 annually. Every teacher contracting after his act takes effect shall be construed as accepting its terms. Boards of edu-ation, trustees, and other school authorities are required to withhold teachers' ontributions from their salaries. Annuities allowed: To teacher having taught 0 years, 15 of which, including the last 5, shall have been in the State, there s allowed one-half of average annual salary during last 5 years, but not ex-eeding $500; to teacher having taught 25 years, 15 including last 5 in the State, here is allowed such proportion of annuity for 30 years as time taught bears o 30 years; to teacher having taught 15 years in the State and having become nentally or physically incapacitated, there is allowed such proportion of an-uity for 30 years as time taught bears to 30 years. Retirement may be on equest of teacher or governing body of the school district. In order to be entitled to an annuity, teacher must have contributed an amount equal to annuity for one year or deficiency must be made up. Annuities shall be paid quarterly. Teacher ceasing to teach before retirement shall be entitled to the return of one-half of amount contributed, without interest. Annuity shall cease when retired teacher again begins to teach. State teachers' retirement fund consists of (1) contributions of teachers; (2) gifts and bequests; (3) income derived from the permanent fund. "Teacher" shall include teachers, principals, assistant principals, supervisors, superintendents in the public schools; county school commissioners, county normal teachers, the State superintendent and his deputies; also all persons employed in teaching or educational work in certain State institutions. This act shall not apply to school districts having a pension system under a local act, but such district, on petition of two-thirds of contributing teachers and by majority vote of qualified electors, may elect to come under the provisions of this act.

Act No. 174, May 11, 1915.

Minnesota: Establishing a State teachers' insurance and retirement fund.

"Teacher" is defined to include teacher, supervisor, principal, superintendent, or certified librarian employed in any educational or administrative capacity in the public schools, or in any educational, correctional, or charitable institution supported wholly or in part by the State, except those employed in State university. "Teachers' insurance and retirement fund" secured from following sources: (1) Assessments on teachers; (2) donations, gifts, bequests, etc.; (3) interest on moneys belonging to fund; (4) a State tax of one-twentieth mill on the dollar of taxable property in that part of State to which this act applies. Boards of education shall deduct from teachers' salaries as follows: For first 5 years of service, $5 per year; second 5 years, $10 per year; next 10 years, $20 per year; next 5 years, $30 per year. Upon the payment of arrearages, credit may be had for service prior to taking effect of this act; any teacher retiring must have paid, or must pay, sum equal to annuity. School boards shall report to county treasurer semiannually in January and July and shall transmit to him funds deducted from salaries; they shall also report to county superintendent as to teachers employed, amounts deducted, etc.; county superintendent shall report to trustees of retirement fund, and county treasurer shall transmit funds semiannually in January and July to State treasurer. Board of trustees to consist of State superintendent, State auditor, attorney general, and two members of retirement association elected by association; term of elective members, two years, one being elected each year. Said board may frame rules, not inconsistent with law, for its own government and the enforcement of this act; it may elect a secretary and fix his salary. Board shall pass on applications for retirement. It shall have charge of the investment of funds. It shall meet annually and special meetings may be held; elective members allowed $5 per day and necessary expenses when attending meetings. Board shall report annually to meeting of the retirement association. State treasurer shall be treasurer of fund and shall report annually to trustees. Teacher may become member of fund association by making application before September 1, 1917. Any person not hitherto a teacher in the State, on becoming employed as such after September 1, 1915, shall be deemed to become a member of the association. Any person having taught 20 years or more, 15 of which including the last 5 must have been in the State, may be retired. Annuities allowed: For 20 years of service, $350; 21 years, $380; 22 years, $410; 23 years, $440; 24 years, $470; 25 years, $500; a year must be at least seven months. Any disabled teacher, having taught 15 years, 10 in the State, may be retired and receive such proportion of 20-year annuity as time taught bears to 20 years. Annuitant may reenter service but without annuity during such employment. Member ceasing to teach before retirement shall be entitled to return of one-half of amount contributed, without interest. Mee of association shall be at time and place of Minnesota Educational Associa This act does not apply to cities of the first class. Ch. 199, Apr. 20, 19

Minnesota: Amending sec. 1427, General Statutes, 1913, relating to teachers' retirement fund in cities of the first class.

Tax in city of first class operating under home rule charter shall not ex two-tenths of a mill on the dollar; in other cities to which the act applies. s not exceed one-tenth of a mill. Ch. 300, Apr. 17, 191

Montana: Providing a public-school teachers' retirement fund.

Two funds provided. Composition of "public school teachers' perma fund": (1) Contributions made by teachers; (2) income from investment moneys contained in funds; (3) gifts, bequests, etc.; (4) appropriations b legislature. "Public school teachers' retirement salary fund" shall consist moneys transferred from permanent fund. There shall be deducted from th salary of every teacher subject to this act $1 from the compensation pa such teacher for every month for which such teacher receives compensation Before any teacher may be retired the sum of $12 per year for 25 years must have been contributed or deficiency made up. Superintendent of public instruction, State treasurer, and atorney general shall constitute the retirement salary fund board. Powers and duties of board: (1) To allow retirement salaries (2) to examine and allow demands against the funds; (3) to require officers having duties to perform in respect to the contributions of teachers to report to board from time to time; (4) to invest the permanent fund in securities designated by law for investment of the public school fund; (5) to appoint a secretary from the office force of the State superintendent; (6) to conduct investigations in all matters relating to the operation of this act. Said board shall meet at least once every three months and make a list of all persons entitled to payment of annuities. Said board shall make rules and regulations not inconsistent with this act, which shall have the force and effect of law. Each county superintendent shall annually report to State superintendent the amount necessary to pay annuitants of his county; State superintendent shall make to board a like report for entire State. Every public, State or county school teacher having served in day or evening schools or partly as such teacher and partly as State or county or city superintendent or supervising executive or educational administrator for at least 25 school years, at least 15 including the last 10 shall have been in the State, shall be entitled to retire with an annuity of $600. Disabled teacher having taught 15 years as above shall receive during disability such proportion of $600 as number of years taught bears to 25. This act shall be binding upon all teachers already in the service who signify prior to January 1, 1916, their willingness to be bound by it; it shall be binding upon all new teachers. Any annuitant on returning to the service shall cease to draw annuity; any disabled teacher returning to the service and thereafter qualifying under this act shall have deducted from annuity amount received during disability, but quarterly deductions shall not exceed $5.

Ch. 95, Mar. 8, 1915.

Nevada: Providing for the payment of retirement salaries to public-school teachers of the State.

Two funds established—retirement salary fund and permanent fund. Sources of permanent fund: (1) Contributions of teachers, (2) income and interest from investment of fund, (3) Stae tax of 3 mills on $100 of taxable property, (4) gifts and bequests. Sources of retirement salary fund: Moneys transferred from permanent fund. There shall be annually deducted from salary of every teacher subject to provisions of this act the sum of $9. Except as otherwise provided, no person shall be entitled to retirement until such person shall have paid to permanent fund a sum equal to $9 per annum for 30 years. State board of education shall constitute the public school teachers' retirement salary fund board, and shall have the management of the retirement of teachers and of the fund; board shall invest the permanent fund. State superintendent shall ascertain and report to board amount needed for retirement purposes during ensuing year and board shall make necessary transfer from permanent fund to retirement salary fund. Any person having served as a legally qualified teacher in the public schools, or partly as such teacher and partly as superintendent or supervising executive or educational administrator, r at least 30 school years, at least 15 of which including the last 10 must have en in the State, shall be entitled to retire, or if physically or mentally in- apacitated, may be compelled to retire; such retired teacher shall be entitled $500 annually. Incapacitated teacher having taught 15 years in the State ay be retired and shall be entitled to such proportion of $500 as time taught ears to 30 years. Act binding upon all teachers employed at the time of its pproval who notify before October 1, 1915, the State superintendent of their greement to be bound by it. It shall be binding upon all persons elected or ppointed after its approval. Ch. 198, Mar. 23, 1915.

New Hampshire: Increasing the efficiency of the public schools of the State y granting pensions to retired teachers of long service.

Any woman 55 years old who for 30 years shall have been employed in the public schools of this or some other State, 15 years of which service, including the last 10, shall have been in the State, and who shall be retired or shall voluntarily retire, shall be entitled to receive from the State for the year ending August 31, 1916, or for such part of said year as she may be retired, a pension at the rate for the full year of 50 per cent of the average annual salary of such teacher for the five years last preceding her ceasing to teach. Retired male teachers shall receive pensions upon the same terms, except that any man, to be entitled to a full pension, must be 60 years old and must have taught 35 years. Any retired teacher who shall have taught 15 years including the last 10 in the State, but who shall not have taught 35 years if a man or 30 if a woman, shall be entitled to such proportion of a full pension as time taught bears to 35 in case of a man or 30 in case of a woman. Any disabled teacher otherwise complying with this act shall be entitled to such proportion of full pension as time taught bears to 35 years in case of a man or 30 years in case of a woman. State superintendent shall formulate rules and regulations for carrying into effect the provisions of this act, and shall investigate applications for pensions and certify to governor and council the names of those entitled to pensions. Pensions are exempt from levy and attachment. Sum of $10,000 is appropriated for fiscal year ending August 31, 1916.
Ch. 165, Apr. 21, 1915.

New Jersey: Amending the teachers' pension law.

When amount certified by commissioner of education to State comptroller as necessary to pay pensions as provided in the law is found insufficient or when commissioner fails to make such certificate, said commissioner shall certify amount necessary for the ensuing year and comptroller shall deduct such amount from State distributive school fund and make payment.
Ch. 85, Mar. 24, 1915.

New Jersey: Amending the teachers' pension law.

Provides that a teacher who was a member of the retirement fund prior to January 1, 1908, and afterward ceased to teach shall again become a member on resuming teaching, and deductions from such teacher's salary shall be based on length of service at the time of so resuming teaching.
Ch. 106, Mar. 30, 1915.

New Jersey: Joint resolution for the appointment of a commission to investigate the subjects of municipal, county, and State pension and retirement funds. J. R. No. 11, Mar. 29, 1917.

New York: Amending the education law, relative to the retirement of teachers in certain institutions.

Adds to those who may be retired on pension teachers "in an institution for the instruction of the deaf and dumb and the blind, receiving State pupils whose instruction and support are paid for by the State."
Ch. 614, Mar. 12, 1915.

New York: Amending the Greater New York charter, in relation to teachers' retirement fund. Ch. 303, May 1, 1917.

North Dakota: Amending secs. 1503, 1506, 1508, 1513, and 1515, Compiled Laws of 1913, relating to the teachers' insurance and retirement fund.

Provides for deductions from salaries of county superintendents and assistants who come within the provisions of the law. Extends to January 1, 1917, the time within which teachers may elect to come within the provisions of the law. Ch. 140, Mar. 11, 1915.

Pennsylvania: Amending secs. 2401, 2402, 2403, and 2404 of the school code of 1911, relating to teachers' pensions.

Provides for pensions for employees of school districts of the first class. (Amended law provided only for teachers, principals and supervising officials.) Act. No. 86, Apr. 21, 1915.

Pennsylvania: Establishing a public-school employees' retirement system and creating a retirement board for the administration thereof; estblishing certain funds from contributions by the State and contributing employees, defining the uses and purposes thereof and the manner of payments therefrom, and providing for the guaranty by the State of certain of said funds; imposing powers and duties upon boards having the employment of public school employees; exempting annuities, allowances, returns, benefits, and rights from taxation and judicial process, and providing penalties. Act No. 343, July 18, 1917.

Rhode Island: Amending sec. 1, ch. 69, General Laws of 1909, as amended by ch. 401, Acts of 1909, and ch. 1090, Acts of 1914, relating to teachers' pensions.

Makes law apply also to teachers in "such other schools within this State as are supported wholly or in part by State appropriation, and are entirely managed and controlled by the State." Ch. 1213, Apr. 22, 1915.

Rhode Island: Amending ch. 69 of the general laws, entitled "Of the pensioning of school teachers in this State."

Defines "teacher" as including every person employed as a teacher, supervisor, superintendent, or assistant superintendent. Ch. 1500, Apr. 17, 1917.

South Carolina: Amending sec. 1821, Ch. XXIV, Code of 1912, Vol. I, in relation to the public school teachers' retirement fund for the city of Charleston.

Authorizes city boards of public school commissioners, when funds to pay annuities are insufficient, to make up deficiency from "any funds under their control applicable to the current expenses of the schools." Act No. 506, Feb. 11, 1916.

Tennessee: Authorizing the school boards of cities, towns, counties, and districts to establish, manage, and maintain a public school teachers' retirement fund. Ch. 76, Apr. 7, 1917.

Utah: Amending secs. 1, 5, 6, 9, 10, 11, 12, and 16, ch. 91, Acts of 1913, relating to the organization of public school teachers' retirement associations.

On written request of a majority of the public school teachers of a city of the first or second class, the board of education of such city shall authorize the organization of a teachers' retirement association. Retirement commission provided for. Every teacher accepting employment in city where such association is organized shall become a member of such association; contract to so provide. Assessments specified. Beneficiaries classified and annuities fixed. Ch. 70, Mar. 8, 1917.

Vermont: See A (a), Administration and supervision, general.

Washington: Providing for the establishment and regulating the operation of teachers' retirement funds in school districts of the first class; defining the powers and duties of certain officers thereto; providing for the levy and collection of taxes therefor and providing for appeals from the decisions of the trustees of such funds.

Applies to cities of over 10,000 inhabitants. A contributory plan. Provides annuity of $480 after 30 years of service, 15 of which must have been in the State, and 12 of which must have been in the city. Ch. 163, Mar. 16, 1917.

West Virginia: Authorizing the establishment of a school-teachers' retirement pension fund for the school district of Wheeling. Ch. 98, Feb. 16, 1915.

Wisconsin: Amending sec. 460–4 of the Statutes, relating to teachers' insurance and retirement fund.

Increases from $1,200 to $1,800 maximum salary allowed secretary of retirement fund board. Ch. 332, July 2, 1915.

Wisconsin: Amending subsec. 1 of sec. 460–8, subsec. 8 of sec. 460–9, and sec. 460–19 of the statutes for the purpose of clarifying the statutes and simplifying the machinery for carrying out the provisions of secs. 460–1 to 460–20, inclusive, of the statutes, providing for a teachers' insurance and retirement fund. Ch. 495, July 30, 1915.

Wisconsin: Amending subsecs. 1, 3, 5, 7, 8, 10, 11, 12, 13, 19, and 20, sec. 925–xx, Wisconsin Statutes, providing for a public school teachers' annunity and retirement fund in cities of the first class. Ch. 225, May 16, 1917.

Wisconsin: Amending sec. 460–19, Wisconsin Statutes, relating to the teachers' retirement fund.

Extends provisions to teachers in publicly supported schools for the deaf and the blind outside of cities of the first class. Ch. 346, June 6, 1917.

Wisconsin: Amending subsec. 5, sec. 460–14, and sec. 14, 49, and 20.30, Wisconsin Statutes, relating to the teachers' retirement funds.

Allows $6,000 annually for administration. Ch. 662, July 5, 1917.

G. TEACHERS: PROFESSIONAL TRAINING AND EDUCATION.

(a) University Departments and Schools of Education.

See G (b), State normal schools; P (c) State universities and colleges.

G (b). State Normal Schools.

Alabama: Conferring upon the trustees created by the act of 1911, approved April 18, 1911, for the government, regulation, and control of the several white normal schools of the State, the following additional powers: To acquire and hold the title to real and personal property for the benefit of the several normal schools each respectively; to exercise the right of eminent domain for the benefit of each such normal school; to sell and convey the property held by the trustees for each such normal school, or by the several normal schools; to borrow money for the benefit of each such school and pledge as security therefor property held by the trustees for the benefit of such school for which said money was borrowed or held by such school itself.

Act No. 737, p. 846, Sept. 25, 1915.

Alabama: See also P (b), Finance, lands, support.

Arizona: See P (a), Higher institutions, general.

Arkansas: Appropriating for the location, support, maintenance, and necessary buildings of the Branch Normal College of the University of Arkansas.

Provides for the removal of the college from the city of Pine Bluff to a farm of 200 acres near said city. Act 287, Mar. 26, 1915.

Arkansas: Authorizing the board of trustees of the Arkansas State Normal School to issue rural teachers' certificates to persons who have completed prescribed courses in said school and to issue special certificates to persons who have completed a two-year course in home economics, including cooking, sewing, and household arts. Act 464, Mar. 28, 1917.

California: Amending secs. 1518 and 1519 of the Political Code and add a new section to be known as sec. 1518a, relating to the powers and duties the State board of education; and repealing sec. 1492.

Minor amendments to section 1518. New section and amendment to section 1519 provide for an annual joint meeting of the State board and representatives of normal schools to consider needs of such schools, to standardize the same, to provide for establishing and conducting courses for teachers of special subjects, to provide a list of textbooks to be used in normal schools, and to prescribe standards of admission. Amendment to section 1519 also authorizes State board to prescribe qualifications upon which county boards may issue certificates to teachers of special subjects. The repeal of section 1492 abolishes the joint board of State normal school trustees. The State board of education succeeds to the powers and duties of said joint board.
Ch. 455, May 22, 1915

California: Amending sec. 1489 of the Political Code, relating to the powers and duties of normal school boards.

Makes president of each normal school secretary of board of trustees of such school. Normal school board may establish a course of study for such school only in accordance with regulations of State board of education.
Ch. 456, May 22, 1915

California: Appropriating $2,500 annually to enable the State normal school at Los Angeles to hold Saturday sessions. Ch. 706, June 9, 1915

California: An act to authorize and empower the board of trustees of the San Francisco State Normal School to sell or exchange and convey the lands and buildings of said school; to acquire by purchase, gift, condemnation, or otherwise a new site for said school and to erect thereon buildings suitable and appropriate therefor, or to remodel or reconstruct any building already erected on the site so purchased or acquired and to purchase therefor necessay and appropriate furniture and equipment; to create a fund into which shall be paid the proceeds of the sale of the present school property, and making an appropriation to carry out the purpose of this act.

Board of trustees authorized to acquire a part of Panama-Pacific Exposition grounds and to locate the said normal school thereon. Fund to be known as "The San Francisco State Normal School Exposition Preservation Fund" is created. Ch. 4, Jan. 11, 1916

California: An act to provide for the disposition of any money or other property accruing or to be received by the State as its proportional share of the returns from the holding of the Panama-Pacific International Exposition.

Provides that first $200,000 shall be placed to the credit of "The San Francisco State Normal School Exposition Preservation Fund," a fund created for the purpose of transferring San Francisco Normal School to grounds formerly occupied by exposition. Ch. 5, Jan. 11, 1916

California: Amending sec. 1489 of the Political Code, relating to the powers and duties of boards of trustees of State normal schools.

In addition to other model schools, board may establish one of intermediate grade. Permits the employment of teachers for normal school extension service; board may allow for such service extra compensation to regular normal school teachers. Ch. 5, Jan. 11, 1916

California: See also L (d), Physiology and hygiene.

Colorado: Levying a tax for the support and maintenance of the State Teachers' College at Greeley, and for the construction of buildings for the use of said institution.

In addition to levy already authorized, there shall be levied annually two and three-quarter hundredths of 1 mill on the dollar. Ch. 156, Apr. 12, 1915.

Colorado: Levying a tax for the support and maintenance of the Colorado State Normal School at Gunnison and for the construction of buildings for the use of said institution.

Provides for annual State levy of three-hundredths of 1 mill on the dollar.
Ch. 152, Apr. 12, 1915.

Colorado: Levying a tax for the support and maintenance of the State Teachers' College at Greeley.

In addition to levy now authorized, an annual State tax of four-hundredths of 1 mill on the dollar is provided. Ch. 186, Mar. 24, 1917.

Colorado: Increasing the tax levy for the support and maintenance and for the construction of buildings of the State normal school at Gunnison.

In addition to levy now authorized, an annual State tax of two-hundredths of 1 mill on the dollar is provided. Ch. 187, Mar. 24, 1917.

Colorado: See also P (a), Higher institutions, general.

Connecticut: Amending ch. 106, public acts of 1913, relating to normal schools.

Increases from $110,000 to $120,000 the annual amount that may be expended for maintenance. Ch. 303, May 16, 1917.

Connecticut: See also G (d), Teachers' institutes and summer schools.

Delaware: Repealing sec. 2301, Revised Code of Delaware.

Repeals section which provides aid to normal school students who attend normal schools outside of the State. Ch. 163, Mar. 2, 1915.

Georgia: Appropriating $50,000 for a dormitory and administration building at the South Georgia State Normal College at Valdosta.
No. 461, p. 10, Aug. 18, 1916.

Georgia: Appropriating $50,000 for a dormitory and the further sum of $50,000 for an auditorium and administrative building at the State Normal School at Athens (branch of university). No. 498, p. 8, Aug. 19, 1916.

Georgia: Appropriating $50,000 for a dormitory at the Georgia Normal and Industrial College at Milledgeville. No. 518, p. 11, Aug. 19, 1916.

Georgia: Amending sec. 3 of an act approved August 18, 1906, providing for a normal college at Valdosta, in south Georgia.

Increases number of trustees from 9 to 14. No. 148, Aug. 17, 1917.

Georgia: See also Q (b), Agricultural schools.

Illinois: See H (b1), State boards.

Indiana: See F (c), Teachers' pensions.

Kansas: See A (b1), State boards; E (e), Recognition of diplomas.

Kentucky: An act to repeal and reenact sec. 6, ch. 62, acts of 1908, relating to State normal schools.

Permits students attending State normal schools to be examined for county teachers' certificate by board of examiners to be appointed by the superintendent of the county in which normal school is located.
Ch. 109, 1916. (Neither approved nor disapproved by the governor.)

Kentucky: Amending sec. 2, ch. 62, Acts of 1908, relating to State normal schools.

Elementary certificate to be conferred upon the completion of not less than one year's work; intermediate certificate to be conferred upon the completion of not less than two years' work; advanced certificate to be conferred upon the completion of not less than three years' work.
Ch. 110, 1916. (Neither approved nor disapproved by the governor.)

Maine: Amending sec. 110, ch. 15, of the Revised Statutes, relating to the course of study in the State normal schools.

Two-year course may be arranged by the State superintendent; no longer subject to approval of governor and council. In three-year and four-year courses trustees may allow credit for successful teaching experience.
Ch. 91, Mar. 15, 1915

Maine: Increasing from $85,000 to $90,000 the annual appropriation for State normal and training schools. Ch. 175, Mar. 24, 1915

Maine: Amending sec. 146, ch. 16, Revised Statutes of 1916, relating to the annual appropriation for the support of normal and training schools.

Increases said appropriation from $90,000 to $110,000. Ch. 64, Mar. 22, 1917

Maine: Amending sec. 143, ch. 16, Revised Statutes of 1916, relating to the admission of students to State normal schools.

Requires student to obligate himself to teach two years in the State after graduation or to pay tuition fee of $50 per annum. Ch. 247, Apr. 7, 1917.

Maryland: See A (a), Administration and supervision, general; F (c), Teachers' pensions.

Michigan: Amending sec. 3, Act No. 204, Public Acts of 1913, relating to the Michigan State Normal College.

Authorizes the State board of education to reduce from $407,000 to $307,000 the amount appropriated for the main building and to expend the difference of $100,000 for specified improvements. Act No. 167, May 7, 1915.

Nebraska: Providing a course in the State normal schools for the training and proper certification of rural teachers. Ch. 232, Apr. 17, 1915.

Nebraska: Providing in the State normal schools an "elementary course" and "advanced course" for training teachers for rural schools.
Ch. 226, Apr. 25, 1917.

New Jersey: Establishing a State normal school at Elizabeth, Union County. State board of education to have control of such school.
Ch. 274, Mar. 29, 1916.

New Mexico: Providing for the training of teachers for rural districts and providing funds therefor.

State superintendent shall annually appoint 50 teachers to be known as "student teachers," who shall be entitled to special training in any of the State normal schools which shall comply with the provisions of this act. Said student-teachers shall be appointed for one year; not more than six from same county in any one year; not eligible to reappointment; must have indorsement of county superintendent. To be eligible teacher must be able to speak and write both Spanish and English, must have taught for 10 months upon a third-grade certificate, must be between 18 and 25 years old, and must have shown fitness to teach. Before appointment teacher must give written pledge to attend the full term and to teach two years thereafter in the rural schools. Normal school must comply with following conditions: (1) No entrance requirements shall be fixed for such student-teachers; (2) a special department must be maintained for training teachers of rural schools; (3) a supervisor must be appointed to have charge of such department; (4) a specified course of study must be offered; (5) such course must be so outlined as to be completed in not less than 10 nor more than 12 months; (6) special attention must be paid to fitting teachers for Spanish-American communities; (7) president of school shall certify to the State board of education the names of student-teachers. Completing course and student-teachers so certified shall be entitled to second-grade certificates. State allows $300 annually to each such student-teacher to pay expenses. Ch. 89, Mar. 18, 1915.

New Mexico: Making appropriation to pay railroad fare in excess of 75 miles of residents of the State who attend the State normal schools and who declare their intention to teach in New Mexico. Ch. 45, Mar. 10, 1915.

New Mexico: Appropriating money to pay the transportation charges in excess of 75 miles of bona fide students of the State normal schools who are residents of the State. Ch. 27, Mar. 8, 1917.

New York: Amending the education law, in relation to State normal schools.

Commissioner of education may contract with school board of any city or district where a normal school is located for the education by the State of children of such city or district. Ch. 315, Apr. 25, 1916.

New York: Establishing a State normal training school in the county of Westchester. Ch. 236, Apr. 20, 1917.

North Carolina: Appointing a board of directors for the Cullowhee Normal and Industrial School. Ch. 27, Feb. 12, 1915.

North Dakota: Submitting to the qualified electors of the State an amendment to the constitution, amending sec. 216 of said constitution establishing and locating a State normal school in the city of Dickinson, County of Stark. Ch. 84, Feb. 4, 1915.

North Dakota: Requiring the payment of tuition for attendance at any model high or graded or elementary school which is operated, maintained, or in any manner connected with the State university, any normal school or any publicly maintained educational institution of higher learning. Ch. 142, Mar. 11, 1915.

North Dakota: See also A (b1), State boards; B (d), State taxation for school purposes.

Ohio: Providing for the appointment of a commission to establish one additional State normal school and providing for the maintenance thereof.

Such school to be located in eastern Ohio. S. B. No. 383, p. 490, June 3, 1915.

Ohio: Authorizing the State normal schools to manage and maintain model rural schools. H. B. No. 398, p. 627, Mar. 31. 1917.

Ohio: See also E (b), Teachers' certificates, general.

Oregon: Permitting district public schools to be conducted as training schools by State normal schools. Ch. 16, Jan. 26, 1917.

Oregon: Proposing an amendment to the constitution providing for the establishment of the Southern Oregon Normal School at Ashland and the Eastern Oregon Normal School to be located east of the Cascade Mountains. H. J. R. No. 4, Feb. 16, 1917.

Oregon: See also E (a), Teachers' qualifications, general.

Pennsylvania: Amending sec. 2029 of the School Code, providing for the condemnation of land by State normal schools. Act No. 377, July 19, 1917.

South Dakota: See O (a), Industrial education, general.

Tennessee: Providing for the issuance of State bonds to the amount of $625,000 for equipment, buildings, and other permanent improvements on the grounds of the State normal schools and the Tennessee Polytechnic Institute at Cooksville. Ch. 117, Apr. 6, 1917.

Tennessee: See also B (e), State aid for elementary education.

Texas: Establishing three State normal colleges; providing for the location of the same by the State normal school board of regents, and for the control of the same.

Establishes "South Texas State Normal College," "Stephen F. Austin State Normal College," and "Central West Texas Normal College." Ch. 66, Mar. 22, 1915.

Texas: Providing for the establishment of two additional State normal schools. Ch. 191, Apr. 4, 1917.

Texas: Providing for the purchase of the East Texas Normal College located at Commerce, Hunt County.

Provides for the purchase of this privately owned institution and its maintenance as a State normal school. Ch. 195, Apr. 4, 1917.

Texas: Providing for the establishment of the Sub Ross Normal College at Alpine, Brewster County. Ch. 197, Apr. 4, 1917.

Vermont: See A (a), Administration and supervision, general; B (e), State aid for elementary education.

Virginia: Amending ch. 322, Acts of 1914, creating the Virginia Normal School Board.

Authorizes said board to confer appropriate degrees in education. Ch. 434, Mar. 21, 1916.

Washington: Relating to normal schools and amending secs. 4365, 4367, 4371 and 4372, Remington and Bollinger's Annotated Codes and Statutes, and providing for the establishment of extension departments in said normal schools.

Providing for joint annual meeting of boards of trustees of State normal schools to discuss policies, etc.; presidents of normal schools to attend such meetings. Required practice teaching of 90 hours before graduation (amended section required 18 weeks). Attendance of common-school pupils at practice school shall be credited to districts in which pupils reside. Extension departments are provided for each State normal school. Ch. 128, Mar. 14, 1917.

Washington: See also A (b1), State boards; E (e), Recognition of normal and college diplomas; P (b), Finance, lands, support.

Wisconsin: Repealing subsec. (2), sec. 20.22, and subsec. (4), sec. 20.3, Wisconsin Statutes, and amending subsec. (1), sec. 20.37, and secs. 20.38 and 401m of said statutes, and creating two new subsections of sec. 20.38, relating to the State board of education and the State normal schools.

Provides appropriations for State normal schools. Authorizes State board of education to establish model farms in connection with normal schools at River Falls and Platteville. Summer schools limited to six weeks in each year. Summer school to be considered as occurring in fiscal year in which major portion thereof occurs. Ch. 447, Mar. 14, 1917.

Wisconsin: See also A (b1), State boards; B (e), State aid for elementary education.

G (c.) County and Local Normal and Training Schools.

Florida: Providing for teacher-training departments in high schools and making appropriation therefor.

Directs State board of education to establish such department in one high school in each county; school must have at least 10 pupils ready and prepared to take training course. State board shall appropriate $500 to each such department if county board appropriates an equal amount or more to employ a competent teacher. Ch. 6830 (No. 24), June 4, 1915.

Iowa: Amending sec. 2634–b6, supplement to the code, 1913, relating to examinations for graduation from normal training classes in high schools.

Fixes time of such examinations. Fee of $1 required of applicants for certificates. School laws, 1915, p. 14.

Kansas: See N (a), High schools.

Louisiana: See A (a), Administration and supervision, general.

Maryland: See A (a), Administration and supervision, general.

Massachusetts: Authorizing the school committee of the city of Boston to conduct courses for the improvement of teachers.

Special acts, ch. 189, Mar. 22, 1915.

Michigan: Amending sec. 5, Act No. 241, Public Acts of 1903, relating to county normal training classes.

Increases from $500 to $600 the annual amount paid per teacher by the State; increases from $1,000 to $1,200 the maximum amount which the State will pay such school. Act No. 217, May 10, 1917.

Minnesota: See B (e), State aid for elementary education.

Missouri: Providing city teacher-training courses in cities of 75,000 population or more and granting State aid to city school districts giving such courses. H. B. 157, p. 388, Mar. 22, 1915.

Missouri: Providing for summer schools in first-class high schools maintaining teacher training courses. H. B. 908, p. 519, Apr. 9, 1917.

Montana: Providing normal training courses and junior college courses in high schools; providing that such high schools shall be free to all children of the respective counties; fixing requirements upon which teachers' certificates may be issued after July 1, 1920; providing that certain expenditures for such purposes shall first be submitted to qualified electors.

Any accredited high school may establish normal training courses as outlined by State superintendent; instruction therein to be approved by State superintendent. Junior college course to conform to requirements of chancellor of university. After July 1, 1920, all holders of teachers' certificates must have had at least twelve weeks of normal training. Common-school funds not to be used to carry out purpose of this act, without submission to qualified electors. Ch. 114, Mar. 3, 1917.

Montana: Appropriating money to establish and maintain normal training courses in high schools; providing for the apportionment of said money, and authorizing the issuance of teachers' certificates to graduates of such normal training courses. Ch. 176, Mar. 5, 1917.

Nebraska: See N (a), High schools.

North Dakota: Amending sec. 1369, Compiled Laws of 1913, relating to accrediting high-school diplomas as second-grade elementary certificates.

Adds school management to requirements for graduation from accredited high school and provides that three instead of two "senior review subjects" must have been taken by graduate. Omits requirement that graduate also attend 18 days at a teacher training school. Ch. 130, Mar. 11, 1915.

South Carolina: See N (a), High schools.

Vermont: See A (a), Administration and supervision, general.

West Virginia: Providing for the establishment and maintenance of normal training departments in high schools and authorizing special State aid therefor.

Any county high-school board or district or independent district board of education which maintains a high school may establish and maintain a normal training department in connection with any high school under its control. State board of education shall prescribe course of study for such department, determine number and qualifications of teachers to be employed therein, and make rules and regulations for the conduct of the same. State aid to each high school approved as a normal training high school by said board shall be $400 annually, in addition to aid granted to classified high schools; but not more than 10 such schools shall be aided in any one year. No normal department in a county in which a State normal school or other State-aided normal instruction is maintained shall receive aid under this act. Ch. 62, Feb. 20, 1915.

Wisconsin: Amending subsec. 2 of sec. 411-5 of the statutes, relating to county training schools for teachers.

In order to receive State aid such schools must be maintained at least 9 month (was 10 under old law). Maximum amount of aid to school employing three teachers is increased from $3,500 to $4,000. Additional State aid for time school is maintained longer than 9 months. Ch. 448, July 23, 1915.

Wisconsin: Creating subsec. 3 of sec. 411-5 of the statutes, relating to courses in domestic science in county training schools, and making an appropriation therefor, in addition to other aid.

Grants, in addition to other aid, State aid of $250 annually to each school maintaining such course and employing a qualified teacher. Ch. 292, June 23, 1915.

Wisconsin: Amending sec. 411-1, Wisconsin Statutes, and creating sec. 411-1a, relating to the powers of county boards of supervisors in establishing training schools for teachers.

Supervisors of county containing no State normal school may establish such a school and provide a building therefor. State aid provided for the erection of building. Ch. 232, May 18, 1917.

Wisconsin: Amending secs. 411-4 and 20.31, Wisconsin Statutes, relating to the number of county training schools for teachers that may be established.

Increases number of such schools from 33 to 35. Ch. 405, June 13, 1917.

Wisconsin: See also B (e), State aid for elementary education.

Wyoming: Authorizing the establishment of normal training departments in the accredited high schools of the State. Ch. 123, Feb. 21, 1917.

G (d). Teachers' Institutes and Summer Schools.

Alabama: Providing for the holding of teachers' institutes, authorizing the employment of institute conductors, and making necessary appropriations for the same. Act No. 673, p. 731, Sept. 23, 1915.

Arkansas: Amending Act 367, Acts of 1907, relating to teachers' institutes.

County superintendent or county examiner shall annually hold a teachers' institute of one week for white teachers and one separately for colored teachers. County having fewer than 15 teachers in attendance may join another county in holding institute. State superintendent to outline work. Duty of holder of teacher's certificate to attend, but attendance upon approved summer school or normal may be accepted in lieu of institute attendance. Act 360, Mar. 24, 1917.

Connecticut: Directing the State board of education to maintain in connection with any normal school a summer school for teachers; appropriating $5,000 annually. Ch. 277, May 14, 1917.

Delaware: Increasing from $1,200 to $2,500 the annual appropriation for the summer school for teachers at Delaware College. Ch. 186, Mar. 15, 1915.

Delaware: Appropriating $500 annually for the maintenance of a summer school for colored teachers at the State College for Colored Students. Ch. 192, Mar. 15, 1915.

Delaware: Amending sec. 2302, ch. 71, Revised Code of 1915, relating to teachers' institutes.

County superintendent to hold, or join with other superintendent in holding, at least once a year a white teachers' institute of not less than five days. State appropriation of $200 for each such institute. Commissioner of education to arrange for and hold annually the Delaware colored teachers' institute, for which $200 is appropriated. Ch. 181, Apr. 2, 1917.

Delaware: See also G (b), State normal schools; Q (b), Agricultural colleges.

Florida: Amending ch. 6498, Acts of 1913, providing for the creation, maintenance, and regulation of summer schools for teachers and other students in the State.

Changes from June 15 to June 28 the date at which sessions may begin. Former provision that session should not last less than 8 weeks is changed to "more than 10 weeks." Board of control, consisting of president of State university, president of State College for Women and State superintendent, is authorized to name instructors, prescribe course of study, and make rules and regulations for the government of summer schools. Teacher receiving credit for work may have certificate extended one year by State superintendent (was county superintendent). Ch. 6835 (No. 29) May 19, 1915.

Idaho: Amending ch. 159, Laws of 1911, by repealing art. 12 thereof, being secs. 112 to 121, relating to summer normal schools.

Repealed sections provided for three annual summer normals of at least six weeks' duration. Ch. 56, Mar. 9, 1915.

Indiana: Relating to teachers' institutes.

Extends provisions of act providing for township institutes to cities; requires institutes on at least one Saturday in each month and requires teachers to attend. Ch. 133, Mar. 9, 1915.

Indiana: Providing for holding monthly township teachers' institutes; authorizing the holding of monthly teachers' institutes in school towns and school cities at the discretion of the boards of education and superintendents of schools of said towns and cities; providing for payment for attendance upon said institutes, etc. Ch. 36, Feb. 28, 1917.

Indiana: See also T (c), Schools for the blind.

Iowa: See O (a), Industrial education, general.

Kansas: Amending secs. 7509 and 7511, General Statutes of 1909, relating to county normal institutes.

Institute which was formerly held for not less than four weeks may now be held not less than 5 nor more than 20 days. Fee of $1 shall be collected from each person writing in an examination, and for each certificate renewed, indorsed, or registered. County commissioners (was county superintendent) now determine amount of county funds necessary for additional support of institutes. Ch. 304, Feb. 18, 1915.

Louisiana: See A (a), Administration and supervision, general.

Maine: Amending sec. 110, ch. 16, Revised Statutes of 1916, relating to county teachers' associations.

Increases State appropriation from $1,000 to $1,500. Ch. 60, Mar. 22, 1917.

Mississippi: An act to amend secs. 4587, 4588, 4589, 4591, and 4592 of the Mississippi Code of 1906, relating to teachers' institutes; to provide for holding institutes, the appointment of conductors and instructors of the same; to authorize the State board of education to outline the work and regulate the management of same and to fix the salaries of conductors and instructors; to provide an institute fund; to provide for keeping, paying, and supplementing the same; to require teachers to attend institutes or normals; to repeal all laws in conflict with this act. Ch. 190* Apr. 8, 1916.

Nevada: Providing for the payment for transportation expenses of teachers to and from teachers' institutes. Ch. 88, Mar. 14, 1917.

New Jersey: Amending ch. 310, Acts of 1913, relating to summer schools.

Amendment provides that tuition fees of nonresident pupils shall be paid into the State treasury to be used for the maintenance of such summer schools. Ch. 263, Apr. 8, 1915.

North Carolina: See E (b), Teachers' certificates, general.

Oklahoma: Amending sec. 5, art. 11, ch. 219, session laws of 1913, relating to normal institutes.

County superintendent shall require a fee of $2 for each applicant for a teacher's certificate, but this not to prevent State board of education from requiring a fee of not less than $1 nor more than $3 from each person attending a summer normal. Ch. 245, Mar. 23, 1917.

South Dakota: Providing for holding summer schools for teachers.

Authorizes State superintendent to approve summer schools conducted by South Dakota normal schools and colleges; county superintendents of two or more counties authorized to unite and hold joint summer schools of not less than six weeks' duration; credit on teachers' certificates allowed for attendance. Ch. 162, Mar. 10, 1915.

Texas: See L (a), Course of study.

West Virginia: Providing for the holding of teachers' institutes.

Every teacher to attend institute at least five days each year unless excused by county superintendent. Said superintendent to excuse teacher who has attended approved institution at least six weeks. Pay provided for attendance at institute. Instructors provided for. Provisions for district and joint district institutes. Teachers to be encouraged to form reading circles.
Ch. 79, Feb. 24, 1917.

Wisconsin: Appropriating not to exceed $5,400 annually for teachers' institutes and for conducting a State teachers' and a State young people's reading circle organized by the Wisconsin teachers' association.
Ch. 451, June 18, 1917.

Wisconsin: See also E (f), Teachers' associations, reading circles; G (b), State normal schools.

Wyoming: Providing for holding annually a State teachers' institute; prescribing the powers and duties of the superintendent of public instruction and other officers in relation thereto, and requiring the payment of an annual fee for the registration of teachers' certificates to constitute a fund for defraying the expenses of said institute. Ch. 161, Mar. 6, 1915.

H. SCHOOL POPULATION AND ATTENDANCE.

(a) General.

California: Amending sec. 1551 of the Political Code, relating to reporting attendance by superintendents of schools.

In addition to attendance in day and evening elementary and high schools, the attendance in special day and evening classes and in part-time vocational classes must be reported. Ch. 718, May 31, 1917.

H (b). School Census.

See also B (e), State aid for elementary education.

Alabama: See A (c1), County boards.

Florida: See H (f), Compulsory attendance.

Massachusetts: An act relative to the registration of minors.

City and town school committees required to ascertain name, age, etc., of every child between 5 and 7, between 7 and 14, and between 14 and 16 years of age, and of minors over 16 years of age who can not read and write. A card shall be kept for every such child or minor. Attendance officer shall examine such cards and see that children attend school. Supervisory officers of private schools shall within 30 days report enrollment of children of compulsory age and when such child withdraws from school shall report the same within [illegible] days. Ch. 102, Apr. 4, 1916.

Missouri: See T (b), Schools for the deaf.

New York: Amending the education law, relative to the school census.

Board of education of each city of the second class or third class shall constitute a permanent census board; to cause school census to be taken and amended from day to day. Ch. 567, May 18, 1917.

North Carolina: See B (e), State aid for elementary education.

Oregon: Changing from November to October the time of taking the school census. Ch. 10, Jan. 24, 1917.

Pennsylvania: Making it unlawful to hinder or prevent or to attempt to hinder or prevent an enumerator of children of school age from performing his duties. Act No. 131, May 3, 1915.

South Carolina: See H (f), Compulsory attendance.

Texas: Amending art. 2774, Civil Statutes of 1914, relating to the school census.

Requires annual census of all persons over 7 and under 18 years of age (amended law required census of those between 7 and 17). In independent districts boards of trustees now required to designate persons to take census. Ch. 121, Mar. 22, 1915.

Vermont: See A (a), Administration and supervision, general.

Washington: See M (b), Kindergartens.

Wisconsin: Amending sec. 10, ch. 459, Acts of 1907, relating to the secretary of the school board, official bonds and sureties, and school census, in cities of the first class.

Provides that secretary shall receive no compensation for taking school census. Ch. 214, June 10, 1915.

H (c). School Year; Month; Day; Minimum Term.

California: Amending sec. 1616 of the Political Code, relating to duties of boards of trustees and city boards of education.

Requirement that schools be maintained for same length of time does not apply in case of closing on account of contagious disease or other disaster. Ch. 535, May 18, 1917.

California: No pupil other than one pursuing a vocational course must be kept in school more than six hours per day; no pupil under eight years of age must be kept in school more than four hours per day. Ch. 536, May 19, 1917.

Idaho: See C (c), Local taxation.

Illinois: See D (c), Sanitation, etc., of schoolhouses.

Kansas: See A (f), Administrative units—districts, etc.

Maine: Amending sec. 17, ch. 15, of the Revised Statutes, as amended by ch. 29, Public Laws of 1909, relating to the number of weeks that schools shall be maintained annually.

Increases from 26 to 30 the number of weeks that towns must maintain schools. Ch. 89, Mar. 15, 1915.

Maryland: See A (a), Administration and supervision, general.

Minnesota: See B (e), State aid for elementary education; H (e), Consolidation of districts, etc.

Mississippi: See A (f), Administrative units—districts, etc.

Missouri: See B (e), State aid for elementary education.

Montana: Amending secs. 302, 502, 508, 512, 607, 803, and 2010, ch. 76, Acts of 1913, changing the date of the beginning of the school year.

Changes such date from September 1 to July 1. Dates for reports, etc., advanced accordingly. Ch. 81, Mar. 3, 1917.

Montana: No school district shall be created between the first day of June and the first day of September following each year. Ch. 69, Feb. 28, 1917.

Nebraska: Amending sec. 6745, Revised Statutes of 1913, relating to length of term school shall be taught.

Reduces from 8 to 7 the required number of months schools shall be taught in districts having not fewer than 20 nor more than 75 pupils. Omits provision that school shall be taught 9 months when the same can be maintained on a levy of 15 mills on the dollar, or 8 months when the same can be maintained on 20 mills. Ch. 116, Apr. 17, 1915.

Nebraska: Amending sec. 6745, Revised Statutes, 1913, as amended by ch. 116, Acts of 1915, relating to the length of school term.

Increases from seven to eight months the length of term required of districts having between 20 and 75 pupils of school age. Term must in any district be eight months when school can be supported on a levy of 15 mills with State supplement. Must be seven months when school can be supported on a levy of 20 mills with supplement. Ch. 119, Apr. 20, 1917.

New Hampshire: Changing from February 16 to August 31 the ending of the fiscal year in special and town-school districts. Ch. 122, Apr. 4, 1917.

New Jersey: Fixing July 1 as beginning of school year for a county vocational school. Ch. 117, Mar. 24, 1917.

New York: Amending the consolidated laws and other general acts in relation to change of the fiscal year and to adapting such laws to such change.

Changes from October 1 to July 1 the beginning of fiscal year for certain charitable, reformatory, and educational institutions.
Ch. 118, Apr. 3, 1916.

New York: See also B (e), State aid for elementary education.

North Carolina: Amending ch. 88, Acts of 1913, relating to tax levy for a six-months' school term.

County tax for such purpose to be annual (was for years 1913 and 1914 only). Ch. 109, Mar. 2, 1917.

North Carolina: Proposing an amendment to the constitution so as to insure a six-months' school term. Ch. 192, Mar. 6, 1917.

Oklahoma: Amending sec. 5, art. 2, ch. 219, Acts of 1913, relating to the apportionment of school funds.

No district in which a common school has not been taught at least three months within the last two preceding school years shall receive any part of State or county-school funds. Ch. 250, Mar. 30, 1915.

Oklahoma: See also H (e), Consolidation of districts, etc.

Oregon: Amending secs. 4039, 4043, and 4044, Lord's Oregon Laws, relating to the maintenance of district schools.

Increases from six months to eight months the length of school term required. Increases from $300 to $400 the amount of funds that must be produced by district tax when added to county apportionment.
Ch. 64, Feb. 9, 1917.

South Dakota: See C (c), Local taxation.

Tennessee: See B (e), State aid for elementary education.

Utah: See B (e), State aid for elementary education.

Vermont: See A (a), Administration and supervision, general.

West Virginia: See C (c), Local taxation.

H (d). School Holidays.

See also (k) Days of special observance.

Hawaii: Designating January 1, February 22, May 30, June 11, July 4, Labor Day, third Saturday in September, December 25, election days, and Thanksgiving Day as territorial holidays. Act No. 20, Mar. 23, 1915.

Kentucky: Designating the twelfth day of February of each year a legal holiday, to be known as "Lincoln Day." Ch. 107, 1916.

Massachusetts: An act to make the first day of January, known as New Year's Day, a legal holiday. Ch. 104, Apr. 5, 1916.

Mississippi: Declaring Thanksgiving Day a legal holiday for all public schools. Ch. 125, Mar. 24, 1916.

Missouri: Designating February 12, "Lincoln Day," as a public holiday.
S. B. 438, p. 301, Mar. 22, 1915.

Nebraska: Amending sec. 5512, Revised Statutes of 1913, relating to holidays.

Following are designated as holidays: January 1, February 12, February 22, pril 22 (Arbor day), May 30, July 4, first Monday in September, October 12, hanksgiving day, and December 25. Ch. 98, Apr. 17, 1915.

Oregon: Amending sec. 4050 of Lord's Oregon Laws, and repealing ch. 94, ts of 1913, relating to holidays.

Provides that election days shall be school holidays only where schoolrooms re used for voting places. Provides that February 12, February 22, first onday in September, and October 12 shall not be school holidays, but shall be ppropriately observed in the schools. Ch. 113, Feb. 17, 1915.

Vermont: See A (a), Administration and supervision, general.

(e). Place of Attendance; Consolidation of Schools; Transportation of Pupils.

See also A (f), Administrative units—districts, etc.

Colorado: Amending secs. 2 and 3, ch. 204, Acts of 1909, relating to the con- lidation of districts.

Makes clearer the law to the effect that each district proposed to be included hall act independently. Prescribes manner of holding election in first-class istricts. Ch. 119, Mar. 19, 1917.

Idaho: Providing for the consolidation of common school districts and inde- ndent school districts.

On petition of a majority of the heads of families of any common or inde- endent school district, county commissioners shall call an election in districts ffected to determine question of annexing such common or independent district an adjoining independent district; majority vote in each district shall deter- ine. Ch. 58, Mar. 9, 1915.

Idaho: See also B (e), State aid for elementary education; N (a), High hools.

Illinois: Amending "An act to establish and maintain a system of free hools," as amended, by adding thereto sec. 121a, relating to the consolidation school districts.

Provides manner of consolidating school districts. Election, etc.
S. B. 199, p. 733, June 28, 1917.

Indiana: Amending ch. 127, Acts of 1909, relating to the transfer of pupils rom one school corporation to another.

Provides that if corporation from which pupil is transferred maintains a hool of same grade as school to which transfer is made, tuition paid shall ot exceed average cost per pupil in pupil's home district. (Old law, maximum r high schools, $4 per month; grades, $2.) Adds to items for which tuition harges may be made the salaries of supervisors and superintendent.
Ch. 19, Feb. 22, 1915.

Indiana: Providing for the consolidation of district schools in two or more wnships.

When the majority of patrons in two or more districts in adjoining town- hips, or designated portion of such districts, petition their township trustees consolidate said district or districts, trustees shall provide for such con- lidation. Ch. 19, Feb. 23, 1917.

Indiana: Regulating the transfer and transportation of children to school.

Township trustees shall provide transportation for all public school pupils siding more than 2 miles from school and for all pupils between 6 and 12 years of age residing more than 1 mile from school. Said trustees shall, on application of parent or guardian, transfer pupil to nearest school. Township to which pupil is transferred shall be reimbursed for cost of transportation and education of pupil. Conveyances to be ventilated and heated. Drivers must be 21 years old or more, of good moral character, and must not sublet contracts. Prescribed precautions for railroad crossings. Expenses of transportation to be paid from special (local) school funds. Ch. 49, Acts of 1917.

Indiana: Providing for the consolidation of schools in incorporated towns or cities of the fifth class with the schools of the township in which such town or city is situated; providing for the management, control, and maintenance thereof, and providing for the repair of old school buildings and the building of new ones and for the issuance of bonds therefor.

Consolidation effected by majority vote of qualified electors of town or city, each corporation voting separately. Majority required in each.
Ch. 148, Acts of 1917.

Iowa: Relating to consolidated independent school districts.

In any township where there is left one or more subdistricts each containing four or more sections of land, such subdistrict shall, after the formation of a consolidated district in such township, become a rural independent school corporation. School board of consolidated district shall organize on or before July 1 after election. School tax in such district shall not exceed $50 for each person of school age, unless a high school is maintained, in which case $80 for each such person may be levied. School board of a consolidated independent school corporation shall provide transportation for pupils residing outside of any city, town, or village. Parent or guardian of child residing an unreasonable distance from school may be required to transport such child not exceeding 2 miles, or board may provide for child's instruction in another corporation. School boards shall provide building and shall call meeting of voters to vote a tax for such building or for repairs to cost not exceeding $200. Likewise a meeting may be called to vote on location, but when district contains a city, town, or village having 25 or more school population, building shall be located in such municipality. Consolidated district may be dissolved by majority vote of qualified electors and with approval of county superintendent. Misdemeanor for person driving vehicle used for transportation of pupils to violate rules prescribed by school board. School laws, 1915, p. [illegible]

Iowa: Increasing from $50,000 to $100,000 the annual appropriation for State aid to consolidated schools.

School laws, 1915, p. [illegible]

Iowa: Amending sec. 2794a, Supplement to the Code, 1915, relating to consolidated school districts.

Prescribes manner of forming consolidated district. Such district formed by county superintendent, on petition of one-third or more of electors residing in the territory proposed for district and after hearing by said superintendent. Appeal lies to county board of education whose determination is final. District must have at least 16 sections of land. After determination of boundaries voters of district to vote on question of consolidation. City, town, or village of 100 inhabitants or more, if proposed to be included, shall vote separately. Vote must carry both in such corporation and in territory outside thereof.
Ch. 432, May 14, 1917.

Iowa: See also D (a), Buildings and sites, general.

Kansas: Amending sec. 7535, General Statutes of 1909, relating to the consolidation of school districts.

Amendment provides that petitioners for election shall be taxpayers.
Ch. 301, Mar. 13, 1915.

Kansas: Amending sec. 8940, General Statutes of 1915, relating to the consolidation of school districts.

Authorizes school boards to contract with custodians of children to transport children to school in their own conveyances, in lieu of transportation provid district. Allowance may also be made for transportation of children living out-of-the-way places to regular wagon route. Ch. 276, Mar. 12, 1917.

Kansas: Relating to school districts, providing for the transportation of pils, and repealing secs. 8918, 8935, and 8936, General Statutes of 1915.

When in the judgment of district school board, the county superintendent ncurring, the number of children in the district is not sufficient to warrant e maintenance of a school in the district, said district may make provision to ansport such children to the school or schools of other districts.
Ch. 277, Mar. 13, 1917.

Louisiana: Amending secs. 1 and 2, Act No. 197 of 1914.

Provides that in franchises hereafter granted to street car lines and interban railways, except in parish of Orleans, provision shall be made for reiced fares for school children. Fare not to exceed three-fifths of regular re.
Act No. 238, July 6, 1916.

Louisiana: See also A (a), Administration and supervision, general.

Michigan: Amending sec. 5766, Compiled Laws of 1915, relating to the conlidation of school districts.

Authorizes township board to consolidate districts regardless of whether ganized under general law or local or special law.
Act No. 136, Apr. 25, 1917.

Michigan: See also O (b), Agricultural schools.

Minnesota: Relating to the formation of consolidated school districts and pealing ch. 207, Session Laws of 1911 and chs. 279 and 428, Session Laws of 13 and other acts and parts of acts inconsistent herewith.

Two or more school districts may consolidate either by formation of a new istrict or annexation of one or more districts or unorganized territory to a istrict maintaining a State graded, semigraded, or high school. Before conlidation is effected, county superintendent shall submit to State superinndent a plat of proposed district, location of schoolhouses, etc., and State perintendent shall indicate his approval or disapproval of plan. To receive tate aid as a consolidated district of class A or class B, district must conin at least 12 sections of land, but district having a valuation of between 00,000 and $1,000,000 and containing an incorporated village may contain ly 10 sections and have the rights of a consolidated district. After plans ave been approved and upon petition of 25 per cent of the resident freeolders, county superintendent shall call an election in territory affected to etermine question of consolidation; majority vote of qualified electors in teritory shall determine. After consolidation a meeting shall be held to elect fficers who shall have powers of officers of independent districts. In like anner one or more districts may be consolidated with an existing district in hich is maintained a State high or graded or semigraded school in a district ontaining an incorporated village, but consolidation shall be effected by vote f the rural districts only and by approval of the board of the district conaining the village. District governed by county board of education may be onsolidated with a district maintaining a State high or graded or semigraded chool by agreement of the two governing boards. Consolidated district boards ay establish school with two or more departments, as agriculture, industrial raining, etc.; may provide transportation or pay board of pupils when adisable. Class A schools shall run at least eight months, have suitable building nd equipment, and maintain at least four departments. Class B, at least two epartments. Board may maintain other schools of not more than two deartments and receive State aid as for semigraded and rural schools. Principal f a consolidated school shall be qualified to teach the elements of agriculture; chool shall have library, suitable equipment for industrial work, etc.; other eachers shall have qualifications as fixed by State superintendent. State aid: lass A schools, $500; class B schools, $250. In addition to such annual aid chools shall receive annually the amount reasonably expended for transportaion of pupils, not to exceed $2,000. In addition to annual aid, district may eceive 25 per cent of cost of building, but not to exceed $2,000.
Ch. 238, Apr. 21, 1915.

Minnesota: Providing manner of terminating the relationship between a associated district and the central school with which it is associated.
Ch. 354, Apr. 20, 1917.

Minnesota: Providing manner of annexing parts of one or more districts to an adjoining consolidated district. Ch. 387, Apr. 20, 1917.

Minnesota: Providing for the payment of bonded and other indebtedness of any school district that has been heretofore included in a consolidated school district. Ch. 432, Apr. 20, 1917.

Minnesota: Providing for the consolidation of school districts situated wholly or partly within villages or cities of the fourth class, when only one of such districts maintains a State high school. Ch. 453, Apr. 20, 1917.

Minnesota: Petition for formation of a consolidated school district must contain signatures of at least 25 per cent of freeholders who have been residents of the districts for at least 30 days prior to signing.
Ch. 470, Apr. 20, 1917.

Minnesota: See also B (e), State aid for elementary education; C (f), Local bonds and indebtedness; D (f), Teachers' cottages; L (i), Manual and industrial education.

Mississippi: An act to provide for the transportation of pupils when schools are consolidated; to provide how consolidated school districts may be changed; tax levy for consolidated schools, assessment, bond issue, transportation wagons, school buildings, teachers' homes, and incidental expenses provided for.

When county school board provides for consolidation of two or more districts, transportation for pupils may be provided at public expense. On petition of a majority of qualified electors of a consolidated district containing not less than 25 square miles, a tax may be levied in such district for the support of schools. Ch. 180, Mar. 31, 1914.

Mississippi: Amending ch. 184, laws of 1914, so as to provide that the trustees of a consolidated school district shall designate the place for holding the election if there is no schoolhouse. Ch. 194, Apr. 8, 1914.

Mississippi: See also A (f), Administrative units—districts, etc.

Missouri: Amending sec. 4 of an act approved Mar. 14, 1913, relating to the organization of consolidated schools and rural high schools.

When the average attendance in any elementary school falls below school board may close school and pay transportation of pupils to another elementary school or schools in said district.
H. B. 1032, p. 385, Mar. 24, 1915.

Missouri: Amending sec. 4 of "An act to provide for the organization of consolidated schools and rural high schools, and to provide State aid for such schools, with an emergency clause," approved Mar. 14, 1913.

Transportation must be provided or an elementary school maintained within 2½ miles of each pupil, but this provision shall not apply in case of pupil who lived more than 2½ miles from school prior to consolidation.
S. B. 472, p. 511, Mar. 27, 1917.

Missouri: Amending sec. 11031, Revised Statutes, 1909, relating to the powers of boards of education in cities having a population of over 500,000 so as to provide for the gratuitous transportation of pupils to and from school.
H. B. 663, p. 518, Mar. 22, 1917.

Missouri: See also A (f), Administrative units—districts, etc.; B (e), State aid for elementary education.

Nebraska: Providing for the adjustment of the boundaries of school districts in certain cases; providing for the consolidation of certain districts and transportation therein; providing for attendance at the nearer school, and amending sec. 6942, Revised Statutes of 1913.

When any school district maintaining a graded school of not less than 10
ades contains less than 6 sections of land, county superintendent, county
erk, and county board shall, on petition of the board of such district, make
uitable changes in the boundaries of such district and contiguous districts.
istricts may be consolidated as follows: Directors of districts affected may
their own motion and must when petitioned by one-fifth of the legal voters
their respective districts call an election to determine the question; adjoin-
g districts in which a majority vote is cast for consolidation shall be con-
lidated and a school board elected for such consolidated district. Consoli-
ated district board shall provide transportation for pupils residing 2 or more
iles from school attended. One school district may be attached to a con-
lidated district on petition of one-half of the legal voters thereof, if majority
those voting on question in consolidated district vote therefor. A consoli-
ated district may be formed any time in the year. A consolidated district or
ny district containing 25 or more sections of land, which provides com-
rtable transportation, maintains a two-room building with suitable grounds
nd equipment, maintains departments in agriculture and home economics or
her industrial subjects in addition to regular course, and employs properly
ualified teachers shall receive State aid of $100 toward equipment and the
rther sum of $150 annually; for a three-room building, $150 toward equip-
ent and $200 annually; for four or more rooms, $250 toward equipment and
300 annually. Children of school age residing more than 1½ miles from the
hoolhouse of their district may be transferred to an adjoining district when
ey reside nearer to the schoolhouse therein. Ch. 121, Apr. 16, 1915.

Nebraska: Providing for the consolidation of the school districts of cities
nd villages merged with a metropolitan city, and prescribing the conditions
such school district consolidations. Ch. 235, Apr. 17, 1915.

Nebraska: Providing for the redistricting of all school districts organized
nder Articles I to XXI, ch. 71, Revised Statutes, 1913; providing for necessary
urveys, for expense of same, for hearings and elections, for transportation
pupils, for district levy, for school grades and subjects; repealing conflicting
cts. Ch. 229, Apr. 25, 1917.

Nebraska: See also A (f), Administrative units—districts, etc.; O (a), In-
ustrial education, general.

Nevada: Providing for the consolidation of school districts, for the trans-
ortation of children to and from school, and other matters relating thereto.

Two or more adjacent districts may be consolidated by county commissioners
n petition of a majority of the legal voters of each of the districts affected.
fter consolidation, directors of composite districts shall meet and elect three
their number to be trustees of the consolidated district; thereafter trustees
the consolidated district shall be elected by the legal voters thereof.
rustees shall contract for the transportation of pupils; district tax provided
pay for such transportation. A district other than consolidated district
ay by majority vote of qualified electors provide transportation. State super-
ntendent shall apportion State and county school funds to consolidated dis-
ricts as follows: (1) District's share of 60 per cent of county fund and 30
er cent of State fund on basis of school census; (2) district's share of 40
er cent of county fund and 70 per cent of State on basis of number of
eachers, which number said superintendent shall determine. State and county
unds remaining to credit of district at time of consolidation shall accrue to
onsolidated district of which such district forms a part. Bonded indebtedness
a disorganized district shall be a liability against the consolidated district,
nd property of disorganized district shall become the property of the consoli-
ated district. As far as consistent with this act, existing laws governing
ther districts shall apply to consolidated districts. Ch. 29, Feb. 26, 1915.

Nevada: Providing for the union of school districts, not exceeding six in
umber, for the purpose of providing instruction in manual training and
omestic science.

School boards of district, not exceeding six in number, may certify to county
ommissioners their desire to form such a union, and said commissioners shall
esignate districts to form union. Trustees of each district shall designate
ne of their number as member of board of directors of the union. Tax may

be levied in each district to pay its share of cost of maintenance. Directo shall elect a teacher and arrange a schedule of time to be devoted by teache to each district. Ch. 149, Mar. 16, 1915

Nevada: Providing for the consolidation of two one-teacher rural school di tricts adjoining each other but situated one in each of two adjoining counti

Ch. 87, Mar. 14, 1917.

New Jersey: Supplementing an act entitled "An act to establish a thorou and efficient system of free public schools," etc., approved October 19, 1903.

Provides that, when two or more municipalities are consolidated into a sing city, boards of education of such municipalities shall hold office till followi February, at which time boards appointed by mayor shall take charge schools and school districts shall be merged into one.

Ch. 130, Mar. 20, 1916.

New York: See N (a), High schools.

North Carolina: See A (f), Administrative units—districts, etc.

North Dakota: Amending sec. 1190, Compiled Laws of 1913, relating to t consolidation of schools.

Requires school board to carry out direction of qualified voters within t months after election. School board not required to furnish transportatio pupils living within 2½ miles of schoolhouse. Ch. 127, Mar. 11, 1915.

North Dakota: See also B (e), State aid for elementary education; D Teachers' cottages; H (f), Compulsory attendance.

Ohio: Supplementing sec. 4726 of the General Code by enacting an ad tional section to be known as 4726-1, relating to the centralization of schools.

In townships containing one or more school districts the qualified elect may by majority vote determine to centralize the schools of said towns districts or of special districts therein. Board of education to consist of f members; term, four years, two or three as the case requires being elec every two years. H. B. No. 564, p. 442, June 2, 1915.

Ohio: Supplementing sec. 7731 of the General Code by the enactment of 7731-1, providing that depots be provided for the shelter of children at certa points in school districts where transportation is furnished.

H. B. No. 333, p. 496, June 3, 1915

Ohio: Providing for the transportation of pupils when the schools of a d trict have been suspended. S. B. No. 441, p. 638, Mar. 31, 1917

Ohio: See also A (f), Administrative units—districts, etc.

Oklahoma: Providing for the dissolution of consolidated school districts the distribution of the indebtedness of such districts when dissolved.

The county superintendent may, upon petition of one-half the legal vot of any consolidated district, call an election in such district to determine question of dissolving the same; 60 per cent of voters of district must vote dissolution in order to carry the proposition. Indebtedness of consolidated trict shall be distributed among constituent districts in proportion to prope valuation and tax shall be levied therein to pay the same. Money granted State in aid of building fund shall be returned to State.

Ch. 202, Apr. 2, 191

Oklahoma: Amending secs. 1 and 4, art. 8, ch. 219, Acts of 1913, and sec and 6, ch. 112, Acts of 1910-11, and repealing sec. 3, art. 8, ch. 219, Acts of 1 relating to consolidated districts and union graded districts.

An election to vote on question of forming a union graded district from or more school districts may be called by county superintendent on petition one-half (was ⅓) of legal voters of proposed union graded district; majority voters of each separate district determines question. Amendment provi State aid of not exceeding $1,250 for a building fund for union graded distr maintaining a term of not less than six months with at least two teachers an attendance of not less than 40 (old law required six months, three teach and 130 pupils). Ch. 187, Apr. 2, 1915

Oklahoma: Prescribing the powers and duties of district school boards and providing the manner of conveying pupils to and from school in consolidated districts, and empowering independent and common school districts, under certain conditions, to provide transportation for pupils.

Amends sec. 4, art. 7, ch. 219, Acts of 1913, relating to consolidated school districts, by providing that transportation may by such districts be furnished all children under 10 years of age whether living more than 2 miles from school or not. Amendment also authorizes independent districts having area, population, and valuation required for consolidated districts to furnish such transportation. Ch. 36, Feb. 23, 1915.

Oklahoma: Repealing ch. 34, session laws of 1913, providing for the transfer of the proceeds of sec. 33 and of lands granted in lieu thereof, constituting the "public building fund," in excess of the amount for which bonds have been issued, to the "Union graded consolidated schools of the State."
Ch. 222, Mar. 23, 1917.

Oklahoma: Amending sec. 1, ch. 187, session laws of 1915, relating to the formation of union graded school districts.

Provides method of such formation. Majority vote is necessary at special meeting of legal voters of districts proposed to be united. Transportation of pupils shall not be provided unless 60 per cent of voters so vote.
Ch. 252, Mar. 30, 1917.

Oklahoma: Prescribing method of formation of consolidated school districts.
Ch. 258, Feb. 14, 1917.

Pennsylvania: Repealing Act No. 83, Public Laws of 1913, which act repealed sec. 2806 of the school code of 1911.

Permits pupils residing in territory which formerly belonged to another school district, but now belongs to a school district created by school code of 1911, to attend school in district in which they formerly belonged.
Act No. 419, June 11, 1915.

Rhode Island: Amending sec. 7, ch. 74, General Laws of 1909, relating to the consolidation of schools.

Authorizes school committee of any town, with approval of State commissioner of public schools, to consolidate any schools of the town; said committee is required (was authorized) to provide transportation for pupils "who reside so far from any public school as to make their regular attendance impracticable."
Ch. 1235, Apr. 23, 1915.

South Carolina: Amending sec. 4 of "An act to provide for consolidated and graded schools in country districts and to appropriate $15,000 to encourage the same."

No district which contains an incorporated town with more than 400 (was 300) inhabitants shall receive aid under this act. Act No. 395, Feb. 19, 1916.

South Carolina: Amending sec. 4 of "An act to provide for consolidated and graded schools in country districts, and to appropriate $15,000 to encourage the same," by including districts containing towns with more than 300 inhabitants within its provisions.

South Carolina: Providing for consolidated and graded schools in county districts, and appropriating $187,500 to encourage the same.
No. 45, Feb. 27, 1917.

South Dakota: Amending sec. 108, art. 5, ch. 135, Acts of 1907, as amended by ch. 141, Acts of 1911, and ch. 196, Acts of 1913, relating to the transportation and tuition of school children.

Authorizes a school district to contract for the tuition of pupil who resides nearer a school in another township or district. Ch. 163, Feb. 9, 1915.

South Dakota: Amending sec. 3, ch. 194, Acts of 1913, relating to elections for the formation of consolidated school districts.

Requires person circulating petition for election to certify by affidavit genuineness of signatures to petition. Ch. 164, Feb. 20, 1915

South Dakota: Amending ch. 192, Acts of 1913, relating to the education children in territory not organized into school districts and providing for a t levy therefor.

County commissioners shall provide school facilities for such children by p ing transportation, providing a school, or paying for their board in anoth district. Said commissioners shall also provide high-school accommodations f qualified pupils and shall pay not exceeding $2 per month for tuition for ea such pupil. Ch. 169, Mar. 2, 1915

South Dakota: Amending sec. 3, ch. 194, Acts of 1913, as amended by c 164, Acts of 1915, providing manner of consolidating school districts.

Ch. 218, Mar. 1, 1917

Texas: See A (c1), County boards.

Vermont: See A (a), Administration and supervision, general.

Washington: Amending secs. 4440, 4444, and 4447, Remington and B llinger's Annotated Codes and Statutes, relating to the consolidation of sch districts.

Provides that on petition of five heads of families county superintendent sha call an election in districts proposed to be consolidated; majority vote in ea district necessary to consolidate. (Under old law county superintendent co consolidate districts after a hearing.) Said superintendent shall divide su consolidated district into three director's districts with population as near equal as possible, and from each such district a director shall thereafter b elected. Board may direct superintendent, if there be a superintendent of s district, to act as clerk. Ch. 182, Mar. 19, 1915

Washington: See also B (f), State aid for elementary education.

West Virginia: Amending secs. 11 and 68, ch. 27, Acts of 1908, relating t the general control of district schools and the consolidation of schools.

Omits provision that every village with 50 or more inhabitants shall b included in one subdistrict. Provides that any school maintaining an averag attendance of less than 10 shall be closed; pupils of such school may atte elsewhere, and board of education of district of their residence shall pay the tuition; when children reside more than 2 miles from school, board of educa tion may employ such means as may seem best to provide educational adva tages for such children, and to do so may use such children's prorata of th school fund of the district. Board of education of any district may consolid two or more subdistricts. (Formerly authorized to consolidate on petition o 75 per cent of the voters of the subdistrict affected.) But no school maintai ing an average attendance of 12 or more shall be so consolidated, except wi the written consent of at least a majority of the voters of the subdistri affected. Ch. 58, Feb. 20, 1915

Wisconsin: Repealing secs. 496–10 and 496–11 of the statutes; amendi subsec. 1 of sec. 496–1 and subdiv. (1) of sec. 496–6 of the statutes; creati a new section to be numbered 496–10, relating to aid for consolidated scho districts, and making an appropriation therefor.

Repealed section 496–10, providing conditions under which consolidated scho districts might receive State aid for the transportation of pupils. Repeal section 496–11, providing that each district consolidating with others shoul receive the same apportionment of State and other taxes as would have bee received had school been maintained in the district. Amended section 496-1 omits "subdistrict" from list of districts, etc., that may be consolidated; respective school boards required to fix date of election for consolidation at no less than two nor more than four weeks from their meeting (was four and eigh weeks, respectively). Amended section 496–6 (1) likewise omits "subdistrict"; consolidated district may receive not exceeding $1,000 (was $500) as State ai for school building. New section 496–10 provides that district consolidate under this act shall provide transportation for pupils residing more than 2 mile from school; if voters fail to vote necessary levy, school board shall certify amount necessary and tax shall be collected. Ch. 371, July 8, 1915

Wisconsin: Repealing certain sections and amending certain sections of the atutes relating to the transportation of pupils.

Regulates the transportation of pupils and prescribes conditions upon which tate aid will be granted for such transportation. Ch. 441, June 15, 1917.

Wisconsin: Creating sec. 424a, Wisconsin Statutes, for the purpose of valiating orders relating to the creation and consolidation of school districts. **Ch. 442, June 15, 1917.**

Wisconsin: Amending subsec. (1), sec. 20.26, Wisconsin Statutes, relating to tate aid to consolidated schools.

Conditions of State aid for central school building in consolidated district. Ch. 510, June 28, 1917.

Wisconsin: See also A (c1), County boards.

H (f). Compulsory Attendance; Truancy; Truant Officers.

See also H (g), Child labor; U (c), Juvenile courts; U (e), Schools for deendents and delinquents.

Alabama: Providing for compulsory attendance at school.

Persons in parental relation to any child between 8 and 15 years of age shall ause such child to attend a public school or a private, denominational, or arochial school taught by a competent person for at least 80 days in each chool year, but county board of education, or city board of education in case f incorporated city or town, may reduce the period to not less than 60 days; uch period shall begin at beginning of school unless otherwise determined by oard of education.

Exemptions: (1) Child who has completed seven elementary grades or the quivalent; (2) child residing 2½ miles or more from school, unless public transportation is provided; (3) child whom teacher, with approval of attendance fficer, may temporarily excuse; (4) child mentally or physically incapacitated or school work; (5) child whose services are necessary for his own support or the support of his family, as attested by affidavits, or child without necesary books and clothing for attending school, unless the same are furnished hrough charity or otherwise. County board of education shall divide the ounty, exclusive of cities and towns, into not less than one nor more than five districts and appoint an attendance officer for each such district; city and town school boards shall appoint one or more attendance officers for their respective cities and towns. State superintendent or county superintendent, as case may be, shall at beginning of compulsory period report to each principal teacher the names of all children that are required to attend such teacher's school, and such teacher shall after five days report all not in attendance to attendance officer and also all absentees of five days or more thereafter. Attendance officer shall investigate all cases of nonattendance and shall give notice to person in parental relation when child is absent without valid reason; if child is not in school within three days, attendance officer shall make complaint against person in parental relation in a court of record. Unlawful to employ during school hours any child between 8 and 15 years old who is not exempt from attendance as provided in this act. All school officers, including those in private, denominational, and parochial schools, must make reports required by State superintendent, county superintendent, or city or town board of education with reference to this act; teacher, before receiving each month's salary, must report cases of truancy. Truants whose parents are unable to control them may, by a court of competent jurisdiction, be committed to the proper custodial institution. This act to take effect October 1, 1917. Act No. 470, p. 534, Sept. 15, 1915.

Alabama: See also A (c1), County boards.

Arkansas: Providing for compulsory school attendance between certain ages, providing a penalty for nonattendance, and requiring school boards to furnish free textbooks under certain conditions.

State-wide compulsory attendance law for children between the ages of 7 and 15, inclusive; attendance required for three-fourths of school term. Usual exemptions. School board required to provide textbooks for indigent children. Teachers required to report attendance once a month. Attendance officers provided. Penalties prescribed. Act 294, Mar. 21, 1915.

California: Relating to compulsory school attendance.

Provides for the appointment of attendance officers on basis of average attendance (was school census). Requires county board of supervisors, on petition of majority of school district trustees of county, to provide attendance officers for portions of county not supplied with such service. Raises from [illegible] to 15 the maximum age under which children may be reported for truancy. The board of trustees of a school district may establish a parental school district has 300 pupils (was 600 census children). Ch. 461, May 22, 1915.

Connecticut: Providing for the appointment of attendance officers for schools.

Ch. 210, May 7, 1915.

Connecticut: Authorizing the State board of education, with approval of judge of the superior court, to appoint one or more persons to be prosecuting agents to inquire into and prosecute for violations of laws relating to the attendance of children at school and the employment of children.

C. 206, May 1, 1915.

Florida: Providing for compulsory school attendance and for the appointment of attendance officers and prescribing their duties and powers.

On petition of one-fourth of the registered white voters of a special tax school district, school board district, or of a county, county board of education shall call an election in such district or county to determine matter of enforcing school attendance therein; if three-fifths of votes cast are for compulsory attendance, this act shall be in force in such district or county, but if a county shall vote against compulsory attendance and any school board district therein shall vote therefor by three-fifths vote, this act shall be in force in such district, and if county shall vote for and such district shall vote against, this act shall not be in force in such district. When so voted, following provisions shall take affect:

Compulsory attendance ages, 8 to 14; period required, not less than 80 days of each year. Similar attendance at a private or church school is accepted if required records are kept and reports made. Exemptions from attendance are: (1) Child whose physical or mental condition is such as to make attendance impracticable or inexpedient; (2) child residing more than 2 miles from school when transportation is not furnished; (3) child whose services are needed for the support of self or parents or who is without necessary books and clothing and parents are unable to furnish the same, but if books and clothing are furnished by other means, child shall be required to attend; (4) child whose parents or guardian have filed written charges against teacher shall be excused until teacher is exonerated. Two unexcused absences allowed in four weeks; principal or teacher may excuse pupil temporarily, but must report the same to governing board of school. Misdemeanor to violate this act. After three days' notice by attendance officer, every day of keeping child out of school constitutes a separate offense. When county or district votes for compulsory attendance, county board of education is authorized to appoint therefor one or more attendance officers. Said officer shall annually take a census of every child between 6 and 21 years of age; he shall furnish principal of each school within his jurisdiction a list of names of children due to attend said school. He shall give notice to violators of this act, see that children attend school as required, and institute prosecutions when directed by county board. He shall have the right to visit places of employment to enforce provisions of this act. He shall keep a record of his official acts and report annually to the county board. Principals and teachers shall cooperate with attendance officers and shall make weekly reports of imperfect attendance.

Ch. 6831 (No. 25), June 3, 1915.

Georgia: "An act to require school attendance of children for a minimum period, and to provide for enforcement of the same, and for other purposes."

Every unexempted child between the ages of 8 and 14 is required to attend school four months in each year; attendance to commence at the beginning of the first term of school. Exemptions: Child attending some other school ving instruction in ordinary branches; child who has completed work of the arth grade; child having member or members of the family dependent upon s earnings; child whose parents are unable to furnish necessary books and othing; child physically or mentally unfit; child residing more than 3 miles om school; child excused by school board for other good reasons. Penalties ced for violation of act. Duty of county and municipal boards of education enforce this act. No. 576, p. 101, Aug. 19, 1916.

Hawaii: Amending secs. 287 and 288, Revised Statutes of 1915, relating to enalty for nonattendance at school.

Authorizes deputy sheriffs and police officers (as well as teachers and fficers of the department of education) to make complaints against violators f the attendance law. Act No. 92, Apr. 15, 1915.

Hawaii: Amending sec. 288, Revised Laws, 1915, as amended by sec. 2, Act 2, session laws of 1915, relating to the duties of deputy sheriffs.

Requires such officers to visit private as well as public schools for the purose of enforcing attendance laws. Act 40, Mar. 30, 1917.

Idaho: Amending secs. 149 and 160, ch. 159, Acts of 1911, relating to compulsory attendance at school.

Reduces maximum age limits from 18 to 16. Child over 15 (was 14) not required to attend if eighth grade has been completed, or child's services necessary to his own use or parents' support. Ch. 12, Feb. 28, 1917.

Indiana: Amending sec. 4, ch. 213, Acts of 1913, relating to compulsory attendance at school.

Empowers judge of the circuit court to appoint as probation officer some other person than the attendance officer. Ch. 77, Mar. 6, 1915.

Kentucky: Amending sec. 2978c, subsec. 6, Carroll's Kentucky Statutes, 1915, relating to truant officers.

Truant officers provided for in cities of first, second, third, and fourth classes. Head truant officers in cities of first and second classes. Limit to $1,200 of salary of head officer in city of first class is removed.
Ch. 121, 1916. (Neither approved nor disapproved by the governor.)

Louisiana: Providing for the compulsory school attendance of children between the ages of 7 and 14 years, providing a penalty, giving parish school boards authority to furnish free textbooks under certain conditions, and repealing all laws in conflict, Parish of Orleans excepted.

Person in control of child between 7 and 14 years of age required to send such child to a public or private school for 140 days each year, or for full term, if term is 140 days or less. Exemptions: (a) The physically or mentally unfit, (b) children who have completed the elementary course of study, (c) those residing more than 2½ miles from school unless transportation is furnished, (d) those for whom adequate school facilities have not been provided, (e) those whose services are needed to support widowed mothers. Truants whose parents or guardians are not to blame for their truancy shall be reported to juvenile court. Parish [county] may furnish textbooks free to children whose parents or guardians are unable to provide the same. Act No. 27, June 23, 1916.

Maryland: See A (a), Administration and supervision, general.

Massachusetts: Providing for the issuance of transfer cards for public school pupils changing their residences.

When any child required by law to attend school is being educated in any public or private school or in any institution in any city or town and leaves school or such institution because of change of residence to another city or town in the State, the superintendent of schools, if child attends a public school, and the person in charge, if child attends a private school or is in an institution, shall furnish to such child a transfer card giving the name of the child, his age, his grade in school, and in every case possible, the street and number of his new residence, and shall send without delay a similar transfer card to the superintendent of schools of the city or town in which such child is to reside. Ch. 94, Mar. 22, 1915.

Massachusetts: Amending sec. 1, ch. 44, of the Revised Laws, as amended by ch. 320, Acts of 1905; ch. 383, Acts of 1906; sec. 1, ch. 779, Acts of 1913, relating to school attendance and the employment of minors.

Superintendent, teacher, or other person authorized by school committee may excuse necessary absences of not exceeding 7 full days or 14 half days in any period of six months (old law, 5 days or 10 half days).
Ch. 81, Mar. 18, 1915.

Massachusetts: An act to exempt certain illiterate married women from compulsory attendance at evening schools.

Illiterate minor not required to attend if a married woman.
Ch. 82, Mar. 28, 1916.

Massachusetts: See also H (b), School census.

Michigan: Amending secs. 5979, 5981, and 5982, Compiled Laws, 1915, relating to compulsory attendance at school.

Adds provision that children over 14 years of age may work outside of school hours. Permits children who have completed the eighth grade to work at housework or on the farm if excused by proper officer. Requires persons in charge of private and parochial schools to report enrollment, children's names, etc.
Act No. 179, May 2, 1917.

New Hampshire: Amending sec. 14, ch. 93, Public Statutes, as last amended by ch. 221, Acts of 1913, relating to attendance of children at school.

On recommendation of superintendent of schools or, if there be no superintendent, any member of the school board, State superintendent may excuse any child over 14 years of age from attendance at school.
Ch. 152, Apr. 18, 1917.

New Jersey: Amending the compulsory attendance law.

Gives juvenile court concurrent jurisdiction with court of common pleas in the prosecution of parent or guardian violating attendance law.
Ch. 224, Apr. 8, 1915.

New Jersey: Supplementing "An act to establish a thorough and efficient system of public schools," etc., approved October 19, 1903.

Whenever in any county there has been employed a county attendance officer for a period of three years, the commissioner of education shall appoint, upon request of the county superintendent and with approval of the State board of education, a county attendance officer to perform duties as prescribed by said State board.
Ch. 89, Mar. 22, 1917.

New Mexico: See A (c1), County boards; See T (c), Schools for the blind.

New York: Amending the education law relative to compulsory attendance at school.

Increases from 160 to 180 days the required attendance. Parent or guardian required to show proof of child's attendance. Issuance of school-record certificates regulated. Ungovernable children may be committed to truant school.
Ch. 563, May 18, 1917.

North Carolina: Repealing the compulsory school law for Macon County and substituting in its place the general compulsory school law of the State.
Ch. 2, Jan. 8, 1917.

North Carolina: Amending ch. 173, Acts of 1913, and ch. 236, Acts of 1915, so as to increase the age limit for compulsory attendance from 12 years to 14 years.
Ch. 208, Mar. 6, 1917.

North Carolina: See also B (e), State aid for elementary education.

North Dakota: Amending sec. 1342, Compiled Laws of 1913, relating to compulsory attendance, school age, and the transportation of pupils.

Compulsory-attendance law not applicable to children living more than 2½ miles (formerly 2½ miles) from school unless transportation is provided. If not less than 15 cents nor more than 35 cents per day, according to size of

mily, is allowed each family living more than 2½ miles and not more than miles from school, such allowance shall be deemed as furnishing transporta- ɔn and children of such family shall not be exempt from attendance law.'
Ch. 141, Mar. 11, 1915.

North Dakota: Amending sec. 1342, Compiled Laws, 1913, as amended by . 141, Acts of 1915, relating to compulsory school attendance.

Changes from 8 to 7 years the age at which children must start to school. the eighth grade is not completed, child shall attend school, if necessary, ıtil the age of 17 is reached. Where child lives more than 2½ miles from hool, this act shall not apply unless transportation is furnished or unless uivalent lodging acceptable to the family is furnished. Child must attend hool to a distance of 6 miles if transportation is furnished.
S. B. 121, p. 172, Pop. Ed., Mar. 9, 1917.

Oregon: Amending sec. 4123 of Lord's Oregon Laws, as amended by sec. 3, . 248, Acts of 1911, relating to compulsory attendance.

Authorizes county superintendent to excuse child from attendance for not ceeding 5 days in a term of three months or 10 days in a term of six months longer.
Ch. 160, Feb. 23, 1915.

Pennsylvania: See H (g), Child labor.

Rhode Island: Amending ch. 72 of the general laws, entitled "Of truant ıildren and of the attendance of children in the public schools."

Every child who has completed 7 years of his life and has not completed 16 ears of his life must attend school for the entire term, unless he has completed ıe work of the 8 elementary grades or unless he is over 14 years of age and lawfully employed. Exemptions for physically and mentally deficient chil- ren and the like.
Ch. 1492, Apr. 16, 1917.

South Carolina: Providing for compulsory school attendance.

Every parent, guardian, or other person in charge of a child between 8 and years of age shall cause such child to attend school for the full term of ıe public school or for at least four months in agricultural districts; attend- ıce at a private or church school may be accepted in lieu of attendance at ıe local public school, but attendance records must be kept and reported. ompulsory period must begin at beginning of the school term, unless other- ise ordered by the county board of education, or in case of a town or city of 000 population or more by the board of trustees, with the approval of the unty superintendent. Exemptions: (1) Child physically or mentally unfit, attested by a legally qualified physician; (2) child residing 2½ miles or more om school, unless transportation is furnished; (3) child who, because of overty, is compelled to work for its own support or support of parents; (4) ıild without necessary books and clothing, unless the same are furnished om some other source, and it is the duty of the school board to furnish books indigent children out of public-school funds. Four unexcused absences in ur weeks allowed; sickness, quarantine, etc., accepted as valid reason for onattendance.. Child between 14 and 16 who is not lawfully employed, or ho can not read and write, is required to attend. District trustees required take or cause to be taken an annual census of persons between 6 and 21 ears of age and to report the same to the principal or teacher of the school efore school opens, and also to county superintendent; said trustees are harged with the enforcement of this act, serving notices on violators, etc.; ıey may enter any office, factory, or business house to ascertain the names children in order to facilitate the enforcement of this act, and may require employer evidence of any child's age. Superintendents, principals, and eachers shall cooperate with trustees in the enforcement of this act; for fail- re to perform duties imposed deductions may be made from their salaries by unty superintendent. This act shall go into effect in any district or aggregation districts when on petition of one-fourth of qualified electors of such district or ggregation of districts county board of education shall call an election therein, nd a majority of votes cast shall favor the proposition; in district containing town of 1,500 population or more such election shall be called upon petition a majority of the board of trustees thereof. County board of education, and towns and cities of 2,000 population or more the board of trustees, may, ith approval of county superintendent, make rules and regulations for the

enforcement of this act but not inconsistent herewith. No tuition or shall be charged any pupil in a district adopting the provisions of this County board of education may remove any trustee or trustees neglecting carry out the provisions of this act when it is adopted.
Act No. 98, Feb. 20, 1915

South Dakota: Amending Art. VII, sec. 148, ch. 135, Acts of 1907, relating to compulsory education.

Increases maximum compulsory attendance age from 14 to 16 years. Chi must attend entire term until work of sixth grade is completed, and thereafter may attend (with approval of school board) not less than 16 weeks each year until the work of the eighth grade is completed or until the age of 16 is reached.
Ch. 170, Mar. 2, 1915

South Dakota: Amending sec. 148, ch. 135, Acts of 1907, as amended by ch. 170, Acts of 1915, relating to compulsory education.

Requires attendance between the ages of 8 and 16, or until the work of the eighth grade is finished.
Ch. 213, Feb. 10, 1917.

Texas: An act to compel attendance upon public schools of Texas by children between the ages of 8 and 14 years; providing that the term said children shall be required to attend for the scholastic year beginning September 1, 1916 shall be 60 days, and the term for the scholastic year beginning September 1, 1917, shall be 80 days, and the term beginning September 1, 1918, and each subsequent year thereafter shall be 100 days; prescribing certain exemptions from such requirements of attendance, providing that in certain cases after satisfactory proof has been made the county superintendent shall furnish textbooks to children whose parents or guardians are not able to furnish same said textbooks to be paid for out of the general fund of the county in which the child resides; providing for excuses for absences; prohibiting and prescribing punishinment for the employment of any child under 14 years of age during school hours, or for inducing any child to remain out of school; providing that counties with a scholastic popoulation of more than 3,000, and independent districts with a scholastic population of more than 2,000, may have school attendance officers appointed by the board of county school trustees, or by the board of trustees of such district after being petitioned that said officers be appointed, and after hearing shall have been had upon said petition; providing that in counties or independent school districts where such attendance officers are not elected the duties of such attendance officers shall devolve upon the school superintendents and peace officers of such counties or district; prescribing who may be elected school attendance officers; prescribing the powers and duties of such attendance officers, or those discharging the duties of such attendance officers; prescribing the duties of school superintendents or any teacher instructing any child within the compulsory school attendance ages; prescribing the duties of parents and guardians with reference to the compulsory school attendance act; providing that any child who shall be insubordinate, disorderly, vicious, or immoral in conduct may be tried before the juvenile court and paroled by said court under bond, and providing that if said parole or paroles shall be violated said bond shall be forfeited and that the child may be declared an incorrigible and committed to a suitable training school as may be agreed upon by the parent of the child and the judge of the juvenile court in which the child is convicted; providing that all conflicting laws be repealed; providing that if any part of the act shall be held to be void or unenforcible for any reason, the remainder thereof shall remain in full force and effect.
Ch. 49, Mar. 13, 1915.

Vermont: Amending secs. 51 and 53, No. 64, Acts of 1915, relating to school atttendance, so as to provide for granting of excuses by school directors.
No. 62, Mar. 23, 1917.

Vermont: See also A (a), Administration and supervision, general; T (b), schools for the deaf.

Wisconsin: Creating sec. 1728o–2 and amending subsec. 1 of sec. 1728o–1 of the statutes, relating to the attendance of minors in employment between the ages of 14 and 17 at industrial, continuation, or commercial schools, and providing a penalty.

New section provides that whenever an industrial, continuation, or commercial school has been established in any town, village, or city according to the law providing for such schools, any minor in employment between the ages of 16 and 17 residing in such town, village, or city shall attend such school in the day time not less than 5 hours per week for 6 months in each year or 4 hours for 8 months, as may be determined by local board of industrial education. Employers shall allow such minors a reduction in hours of work of not less than the number of hours the minor is required to attend school. Amended section provides that minors employed between the ages of 14 and 16 must attend such a school (if one is maintained) 5 hours a week for 8 months in the year, or 4 hours a week for 10 months. Ch. 420, July 20, 1915.

Wisconsin: Creating sec. 439a-1 of the statutes, relating to the attendance of children between the ages of 14 and 16 at industrial, continuation, commercial, or evening schools.

Person between 16 living within 2 miles of school or within the limit of any incorporated city or village and not physically incapacitated, who is not required by law to attend some public, private, or parochial school, and who is not attending a free high school or equivalent thereof, must either attend some public, private, or parochial school or attend for five hours a week for six months, or four hours a week for eight months, an industrial, continuation, or commercial school, if such school is maintained in the city, town, or village in which his parents or guardian resides. Ch .266, June 18, 1915.

Wisconsin: Adding subsec. 2 to sec. 439a of the statutes, relating to compulsory attendance.

Juvenile court (as well as certain other courts) shall have jurisdiction in prosecutions for violation of the attendance law. Ch. 250, June 11, 1915.

Wisconsin: Amending subsec. 2, sec. 439b, Wisconsin Statutes, relating to the powers and duties of truant officers.

Extends such officers' duties to include continuation schools, or any other school which minors are required to attend. Ch. 260, May 22, 1917.

Wisconsin: Amending sec. 439a, Wisconsin Statutes, relating to compulsory school attendance.

Among those exempted are children residing in the country more than 2 miles from the nearest school, but children between 9 and 14 years of age living between 2 and 3 miles from school shall attend at least 60 days each year. Ch. 285, May 25, 1917.

Wisconsin: See also O (d), Continuation schools.

H (g). Child Labor.

See also H (f), Compulsory attendance.

Alabama: Regulating the employment of minors.

No child under 14 years old shall be employed in any gainful occupation, except agriculture or domestic service, but boys over 12 years old may be employed in business offices and mercantile establishments in cities or towns of less than 25,000 population during the time when the public schools are not in session. No child under 16 shall be employed, other than in agriculture or domestic service, for more than 6 days a week, 60 hours a week, 11 hours a day, or between 6 p. m. and 6 a. m. Employers of boys under 16 or girls under 18 shall post in every room notice of working hours as prescribed by this act. No person under 18 shall in any city of 25,000 population or more be employed as a messenger between 9 p. m. and 5 a m.; in any city or town of less than 25,000 population, no person under 18 shall be employed as a messenger between 10 p. m. and 5 a. m. No child under 16 shall be employed in certain hazardous occupations; no child under 16 shall be employed upon the stage of any theater or concert hall or in any connection with any theatrical performance or other exhibition or show. Employer of child between 14 and 16, except in agriculture and domestic service, shall procure and keep on file for inspection an employment certificate for such child, but this provision shall not apply to boys over 12 in cities or towns of less than 25,000 population who are employed in business offices and marcantile establishments during time when public schools are not in session; factory inspector may make written demand upon employer to furnish proof of age of any child apparently under 16 who is employed without such certificate; upon failure to produce such proof, employer shall cease to employ such child. No child under 16 shall be employed in any mill, factory, or manufacturing establishment unless such child shall attend school at least six weeks during the year of such employment. Employment certificates shall be issued by superintendent or principal of school, by county superintendent, or by person authorized by such superintendent or principal; child and person in parental relation must apply in person for certificate; person authorized to issue certificate shall require (1) school record of child showing attendance at school at least 60 days in preceding year, and (2) evidence that child is over 14 years old; person issuing certificates shall monthly transmit to State inspector a report of certificates issued or denied. State inspector shall draft printed form of certificate; on termination of employment, certificate shall be returned to child, or if unclaimed within 10 days to authority by whom issued. No boy under 12 and no girl under 18 shall be employed in any street occupation in any city of 25,000 population or more, but boy over 10 may deliver newspapers and periodicals on fixed routes in residence districts; no boy under 16 shall be employed in any street occupation in any city of 25,000 population or more between 8 p. m. and 5 a. m., or unless he has secured and wears a badge, or unless he is a regular attendant at school: such badge shall be issued by superintendent of school or person authorized by him and shall not be issued to boy under 12, or in the case of distribution of papers on fixed routes, to boy under 10 years old. State prison inspector is made State factory inspector and shall enforce the provisions of this act. Every employer of minors shall keep place of employment sanitary. Inspector shall have free access to places where minors are employed; misdemeanor for employer to refuse such access. Act. No. 169, p. 193, Feb. 24, 1915.

California: Amending the child-labor law.

No minor under 15 years old shall be employed in any mercantile, manufacturing, or mechanical establishment, workshop, office, laundry, place of amusement, restaurant, hotel, apartment house, in the distribution of merchandise or messages, or in any other place of labor, but minor between 12 and 15 may be employed in weekly holidays and during vacation if supplied with a vacation permit and minor between 14 and 15 may be permitted by school authorities to work outside of school hours. City or county superintendent may issue permits to work (1) to minors over 14 who have completed the grammar school course and are physically fit; (2) to minors over 14 whose families are proved to be dependent upon their labor for support; work must be waiting for minor; employer must keep permit on file for inspection and must return the same to minor when employment ceases. No minor under 16 shall be employed in any hazardous occupation, nor in any occupation dangerous to health or morals; the bureau of labor statistics may determine what occupations are in this class. No minor under 18 shall be employed more than 8 hours a day, except to make necessary repairs or to make a shorter day for one day in the week; nor shall such minor be employed more than 48 hours a week. No minor under 18 shall be employed to deliver messages or merchandise between 9 p. m. and 6 a. m. Vacation permits shall be issued by the principal or vice principal of school or secretary of school board. No minor under 15 shall be employed in occupations enumerated in section 1 during the hours the public schools are in session, without an age and schooling certificate; such certificate shall be issued by the superintendent of schools or person authorized by him or school board and shall be based on (1) school record of minor, (2) evidence that minor is over 15 years old, (3) written statement from prospective employer that he is about to employ the minor, (4) physician's certificate showing minor's physical fitness. No minor having an age and schooling certificate and no minor under 16 years old shall remain unemployed and out of school longer than two weeks; within one week after employment ceases, employer shall notify authority who issued certificate that minor is no longer employed. Employer of minors under 18 shall keep a register of such minors, with permits, etc., on file for inspection. Misdemeanor to violate the provisions of this act. Minors over 16 may be employed in agricultural and similar pursuits; minors between 15 and 16 may be employed in theatrical productions on approval of the commissioner of the bureau of labor statistics.

Four new sections are added. No boy under 10 and no girl under 18 shall be employed in "street occupations," but this section shall not apply to cities having less than 23,000 population. The bureau of labor statistics shall enforce the provisions of this act; attendance officers and probation officers may enter places of employment for the purpose of investigation.
Ch. 625, June 5, 1915.

California: Amending sec. 14 of an act regulating the employment of children, approved February 20, 1905, as last amended by act of June 5, 1915.

Permits the employment of minors over 16 at agricultural, horticultural, viticultural, or domestic labor. Minors under 16 may be employed at such labor outside of school hours. Minors may be employed in theatrical performances under certain conditions. Ch. 580, May 22, 1917.

Connecticut: Amending sec. 2, ch. 123, public acts of 1911, relating to the employment of children.

Adds "while power is attached" to clause prohibiting the employment of children under 16 about machinery. Adds the following to dangerous occupations in which children under 16 may not be employed: "The manufacture or use of any dangerous or poisonous gas or dye, or composition of lye in which the quantity thereof is injurious to health, or upon any scaffolding, or in any heavy work in any building trade, or in any tunnel, mine, or quarry, or in operating or assisting to operate any emery, stone, or buffing wheel."
Ch. 195, May 5, 1915.

Connecticut: Amending sec. 1163 of the General Statutes, relating to the employment of children for exhibition purposes.

Unlawful to employ a minor under 16 (was 12) years old for such purposes. Ch. 175, Apr. 30, 1915.

Connecticut: Amending an act concerning billiard and pool rooms.

Prohibits the employment in such places of minors under 18 years old.
Ch. 182, Apr. 29, 1915.

Connecticut: Concerning hours of employment of minors and women.

No public restaurant, café, dining room, barber shop, hair dressing or manicuring establishment or photograph gallery shall employ any minor under 16 years old or any women between 10 p. m. and 6 a. m., nor for more than 58 hours in one week. Act not to apply to hotels. Ch. 300, May 16, 1917.

Connecticut: Amending sec. 4707 of the General Statutes, relating to enforcement of laws regulating the employment of children.

Such laws to be enforced by State board of education, school visitors, boards of education, and town school committee. For such purpose State board may appoint agents. Ch. 320, May 19, 1917.

Connecticut: See also H (f), Compulsory attendance.

Delaware: Amending secs. 987 to 992, ch. 38, of the Revised Code of Delaware, relating to child labor.

Abolishes the Delaware Child Labor Commission and creates the Labor Commission of Delaware and transfers powers and duties of said child labor commission to labor commission. Labor commission to consist of five members; term, five years, one appointed by governor each year. Said labor commission is given supervision of the employment of females, as well as minors, as regulated by law. Ch. 66, Feb. 9, 1915.

Delaware: Regulating the employment of minors. (Repeals Code sections 3144 to 3192 and enacts new sections.)

No child under 14 years of age shall be employed for pay, except on the farm and in domestic service in private homes. No child under 15 shall be employed in any of specified dangerous occupations, nor in any occupation injurious to health or morals. No child under 16 shall be employed unless employer keeps on file prescribed employment certificate. No child under 16 shall be employed in a theatrical performance, but child-labor inspector may issue permit for limited period. No person under 18 shall be employed in any of specified more dangerous occupations. No person under 21 shall be employed where intoxicating liquors are sold. No person under 21 shall be employed as a messenger between 10 p. m. and 6 a. m. in any city of 20,000 population or more. Employment certificates to be (1) general, allowing children between 14 and 16 to work in permissible occupations during entire year, and (2) provisional, allowing boys over 12 and girls over 14 to work in occupations approved by labor commission during periods when not required to attend school. Certificate shall describe child, certify that child has appeared and signed name, and state character of occupation in which child is permitted to engage. Provisional certificate to be of different color. Certificates issued in Wilmington by superintendent of schools or person designated by him, and in other district by principal of school or person designated by him. Application for certificate by custodian of child. Conditions of issuance of general certificate: (1) Statement by employer; (2) physician's certificate of physical fitness; (3) school record of child showing completion of five grades of school work or equivalent; (4) statement by issuing officer that child can read and write English sentences; (5) evidence that child is over 14. On termination of employment, general certificate shall be returned to issuing officer. Provisional certificate shall not be issued until following papers are received: (1) Statement of chief executive officer of school stating grade of child and mental fitness; (2) physician's certificate of physical fitness; (3) evidence that child is 12 years old or over if a male and 14 or over if a female. Provisional certificate to remain in possession of child. No child holding a certificate (general or provisional) shall be employed more than 6 days or 54 hours a week, more than 10 hours a day, nor between 7 p. m. and 6 a. m. Report of certificates issued shall be made quarterly to State child-labor inspector. Chairman of labor commission may permit employment of child whose earnings are needed for support of the family. Labor commission to appoint child labor inspector: term, four years; salary, $1,800. Failure to produce certificate is prima facie evidence of illegal employment. Inspector may demand proof of age; failure to produce such proof is prima facie evidence of illegal employment. Inspector to furnish employers copies of this act to be posted in conspicuous places. Penalties for violation of the act. Nothing in this act shall prevent children from receiving industrial education. This act not to apply to children over 12 employed in any establishment for canning or preserving perishable fruits and vegetables. Ch. 232, Apr. 2, 1917.

Florida: Amending secs. 10, 20, and 22, ch. 6488, Acts of 1913, relating to the employment of minors.

Adds pool rooms, billard rooms, and breweries to places in which persons under 21 years old shall not be employed. Increases annual salary of State labor inspector from $1,200 to $1,800 and allows $200 annually for office stationery and like expenses. Ch. 6918 (No. 112), June 4, 1915.

Georgia: Providing for the appointment of one factory inspector to aid in the enforcement of the child-labor law. No. 547, p. 113, Aug. 19, 1916.

Illinois: Regulating the employment of minors and repealing child-labor law of May 15, 1903.

Employment of minors under 14 in specified occupations is prohibited; minors under 14 may not be employed while schools are in session. No minor between 14 and 16 may be employed without an employment certificate. Minors under 16 not to be employed in specified dangerous occupations.
S. B. 125, p. 511, June 26, 1917.

Kansas: Establishing an industrial welfare commission for women, learners, and apprentices, and minors, prescribing its powers and duties and providing for the fixing of wages, hours, and the standard conditions of labor for such workers; providing penalties for violations of the same.
Ch. 275, Mar. 6, 1915.

Kansas: Regulating the employment of minors.

No child under 14 years of age shall be employed in any factory, workshop, theater, mill, cannery, packing house, or operating elevators, nor in any business or service during the hours when the public schools are in session. No child under 16 shall be employed in any mine or quarry or dangerous occupation. No child under 16 shall be employed between 6 p. m. and 7 a. m., nor more than 8 hours a day or 48 hours a week. Employers of children under 16 in vocations mentioned in this act shall procure and keep on file work permits. Employer shall keep posted in a conspicuous place notice of maximum number of hours children under 16 may be employed. Superintendent of schools or his representative or judge of juvenile court shall issue work permits. Conditions on which such permits issued: (1) Statement of employer as to character of employment; (2) school record of child showing completion of elementary grades, or evidence of equivalent education, but child not having such qualification may work when school is not in session; (3) evidence that child is 14 years of age, the State commissioner of labor to prescribe rules for such evidence. Permit to State name, sex, date, and place of birth of child and shall describe child. Permit to be issued in duplicate and one copy sent to commissioner of labor. On termination of employment, permit shall be returned to issuing officer. Commissioner of labor may revoke permit when improperly issued or when for physical or moral welfare of child. Duty of State factory inspector and inspector of mines and their deputies to inspect places of employment of minors. Older child labor labor law repealed. Ch. 227, Mar. 10, 1917.

Kentucky: Amending sec. 331A, subsec. 1, of "An act to regulate the labor and employment of children and minors, and to make the provisions thereof effective," approved Mar. 21, 1914.

Permits the performance in licensed theaters of children under 16 years of age, if such children are not residents of the State and if accompanied by parent, guardian, governess, teacher, or other proper custodian.
Ch. 23, Mar. 16, 1916.

Louisiana: Amending sec. 4, Act No. 301 of 1908, relating to the employment of women and minors.

Strikes out provision that such employment may be for longer than 10 hours a day for 20 days before Christmas. Act No. 177, July 6, 1916.

Maine: Regulating the employment of minors.

No child under 14 years old shall be employed in any manufacturing or mechanical establishment; no child under 14 shall be employed in any business or service for hire during hours when public schools are in session. No child between 14 and 16 shall be employed in above-mentioned occupations unless employer procures and keeps on file subject to inspection of proper officer a work permit issued by school superintendent or person authorized by him in writing; no such permit shall be issued until child has shown ability to read and write simple English sentences and to do fundamental operations in arithmetic through division, nor until evidence is shown that child is 14 years old or upward; persons issuing permit or State factory inspector may require child to be examined by a physician to determine child's normal development and physical fitness. Vacation permits entitling child over 14 to work in summer vacation shall be issued on same requirements as regular work permits, except that educational qualifications shall not be required. A duplicate permit and original papers upon which it was issued shall be forwarded to the State department of labor and industry and by said department promptly examined and returned; on the surrender of permit or when child reaches 16, issuing officer shall return papers to child; commissioner of labor may direct permit to be canceled. When child leaves employment, employer shall return permit to him and notify commissioner of labor. Officer charged with enforcement of this act may demand of employer to present documetary evidence of child's age or cease to employ child. Penalties fixed for violation of this act.
Ch. 327, Apr. 2, 1915.

Maine: Amending sec. 21, ch. 49, Revised Statutes of 1916, relating to the employment of minors between 14 and 16 years of age.

Prescribes proofs required for determining minor's age.
Ch. 146, Mar. 31, 1917.

Maryland: Amending the child-labor law.

No child under 14 years of age shall be employed in any factory, mechanical establishment, tenement house, office building, restaurant, bakery, barber shop, hotel, bootblack stand, public stable, garage, laundry, brick or lumber yard construction of buildings, as a messenger, or in any mercantile establishment, store, office, boarding house, place of amusement, club, or in the transmission or sale of merchandise. No child under 12 shall be employed in any canning or packing establishment. No child under 16 shall be employed in a hazardous occupation. Employed child under 16 must have employment certificate. General employment certificates and vacation employment certificates provided for. On termination of employment of child, employer must return certificate to officer who issued it. Issuing officer must have following evidence: (1) School record of child; (2) a physician's certificate showing child's physical fitness; (3) evidence of child's physical age showing child to be 14 or more; (4) an employment ticket signed by the prospective employer stating the occupation in which child is to be employed. Child must appear before officer in person and give evidence of ability to read and write simple English sentences. Vacation certificate issued only for vacation on evidence of age and physician's certificate. No female shall be employed where compelled to stand constantly. No boy under 12 and no girl under 16 shall in a city of 20.000 population or more sell newspapers or periodicals in a street or public place, but boys over 10 with a permit may distribute papers on a regular route. No boy under 16 in a city of 20,000 population or more shall sell papers unless he complies with legal requirements concerning school attendance and has a permit and badge as provided by this act. No child under 16 shall be employed more than 6 days in a week, nor more than 48 hours in a week, nor more than 8 hours in a day, nor between 7 p. m. and 7 a. m. Ch. 22, Apr. 11, 1916.

Massachusetts: Amending sec. 61, ch. 514, Acts of 1909, as amended, relating to employment certificates of minors.

Fine of $10 to alter an employment certificate after its issuance. Ch. 70, Mar. 17, 1915.

Massachusetts: An act relative to the employment of certain minors in the summer season.

Permits the employment of minors between 14 and 16 years of age in vacation time. Ch. 66, Mar. 22, 1916.

Massachusetts: An act relative to the hours of employment of women and minors.

Permits the employment of women and of minors under 18 years of age for more than 54 but not exceeding 58 hours a week in establishments where the employment is by seasons, but the State board of labor and industries shall determine what employments are seasonal. Ch. 22, May 16, 1916.

Massachusetts: Providing for a meal interval of at least 45 minutes for all women and persons under 18 years of age employed in factories.

Ch. 110, Mar. 22, 1917.

Massachusetts: Permitting the employment of girls under 21 years of age in regular service telephone exchanges until 11 o'clock at night.

Ch. 294, May 24, 1917.

Massachusetts: See also O (c), Trade schools.

Michigan: Amending secs. 9, 10, and 11, Act No. 285, Public Acts of 1909, as last amended by Act No. 220, Public Acts of 1911, providing for the regulation of the employment of labor.

Adds "office or restaurant" to places in which boys under 18 and females may not be employed longer than 9 hours a day or 54 hours a week. Changes from 14 to 15 the age under which minors may not be employed in hotels, restaurants, manufacturing and mercantile establishments and the like and adds "billiard or pool room conducted for profit," but provides that this section shall not apply to children over 14 employed in vacation time in preserving perishable goods in fruit or vegetable canning establishments. Changes from the fourth grade to the sixth grade the amount of school work which a minor between 15 and 16 years old must have had before he may be employed. A boy between 16 and 18 years old may be employed in any occupation, other than cleaning machinery or in connection with alcoholic liquors, if such employment is for not more than 54 hours a week nor more than 10 hours a day, and if such occupation is approved by the department of labor as not being injurious to health or morals, or unduly hazardous. Act. No. 255, May 17, 1915.

Michigan: Amending sec. 5331, Compiled Laws, 1915, relating to the employment of minors.

No person under 21 years of age to be employed where intoxicating liquors are sold. No person under 15 to be employed in specified occupations. Children over 14 permitted to work in specified occupations when schools not in session. Persons under 16 must have work permit when employed; issuance of such permit regulated. Act No. 280, May 10, 1917.

New Hampshire: Amending secs. 9 and 10, ch. 162, Acts of 1911, relating to child labor.

Provides that in the absence of the superintendent of schools employment certificate may be issued by person authorized by school board. Provides for the issuance of employment certificates for the vacation period only; for such certificate minor's school record shall not be required.
Ch. 61, Mar. 24, 1915.

New Hampshire: Amending sec. 1, ch. 156, Acts of 1913, as amended by ch. 164, Acts of 1915, also amending secs. 2, and 3 of said chapter, and repealing sec. 2, ch. 164, Acts of 1915, relating to hours of work for women and minors under 18 years of age.

Such persons not to be employed, except in domestic and farm work and the like, more than 10½ hours a day or more than 54 hours a week.
Ch. 196, Apr. 19, 1917.

New York: Amending sec. 485, ch. 88, Laws of 1909, relating to the employment of children.

Prohibits the employment of children under 16 years of age in connection with making motion picture films, unless employer gets consent of mayor of city or president of village trustees. Ch. 278, Apr. 24, 1916.

New York: Amending the labor law, relating to the making of certain reports to school and other authorities.

Reports relative to minors' employment certificates issued or refused shall be made to local superintendent of schools. Ch. 536, May 17, 1917.

New York: An act relating to the employment of children in agricultural pursuits; relieving children so employed from school attendance; and providing for credit to pupils who are engaged in military, agricultural, and industrial services. Ch. 689, May 29, 1917.

North Carolina: Amending ch. 463, Public Laws of 1907, relating to the hours of labor in factories.

No woman or minor shall be employed in a factory more than 60 hours in one week. Persons in parental relation to child employed in a factory or manufacturing establishment must submit to employer a written statement as to child's age and certificates as to school attendance; misdemeanor to make false statement. Ch. 148, Mar. 8, 1915.

Pennsylvania: Enacting a child-labor law.

"Establishment" defined to mean any place where work is done for compensation, to whomsoever payable. This act shall not apply to children employed on the farm or in domestic service in private homes. No minor under 14 years of age shall be employed in, about, or in connection with any establishment or in any occupation. No minor between 14 and 16 years old shall be employed unless such minor shall during employment attend for not less than eight hours a week a school approved by State superintendent of public instruction, which school may be consolidated in the establishment where minor is employed or in a school building; employer shall notify officer issuing employment certificate within four days after minor's employment begins; this section shall not apply where no school contemplated herein is established within reasonable access to place of employment. No minor under 16 shall be

employed in any establishment or in any occupation for more than 51 hours in any one week, 9 hours in any one day, nor between 8 p. m. and 6 a. m. No minor under 16 shall be employed in any of the enumerated hazardous occupations; no minor under 18 shall be employed where alcoholic liquors are sold; in addition to the foregoing, no minor under 18 shall be employed in any other occupation dangerous to the life or limb or injurious to the health or morals of said minor, such occupation to be determined by the industrial board of the department of labor and industry. No minor shall work as a messenger between 8 p. m. and 6 a. m. No male minor under 12 and no female minor shall sell newspapers or other periodicals on the streets or in a public place; no male minor under 14 and no female minor shall work as a bootblack or other trade or occupation performed in a street or public place; no male minor under 16 or female minor shall work in street occupations between 8 p. m. and 6 a. m. Before any minor under 16 may be employed. employer must procure and keep on file an employment certificate for such minor. Such certificate to be issued by district superintendent, supervising principal, or by secretary of school board in district having no superintendent or supervising principal; such officer may designate another school officer to issue certificates. Application must be made by person in parental relation and minor must appear before officer issuing certificate. General employment certificate entitles minor 14 to 16 to be employed for entire year; vacation certificates entitles to be employed on any day when not required by law to attend school. Person issuing certificate must obtain and file following papers: (1) Employer's statement that he intends to employ minor; (2) school record of minor; (3) certificate of physical fitness; (4) proof of age. School record furnished by principal of school attended by minor; it must certify that minor has completed a course equivalent to six yearly grades. Certificate of physical fitness must be signed by a physician approved by the school directors and shall certify that minor is physically qualified to do the work indicated in employer's notice that he intends to employ minor. Evidence of age required: (1) Transcript of birth certificate, or (2) baptismal certificate, or (3) passport showing age of the immigrant, or (4) in case the foregoing are not obtainable, other documentary evidence of age (except school record or an affidavit), or (5) in case the foregoing are not obtainable, statement of an approved physician of opinion of minor's age, accompanied by affidavit of person in parental relation to minor. Requirements for vacation certificate same as for general certificate except that no school record is required. Employer of minor under 16 shall acknowledge in writing the receipt of certificate and when employment ceases shall return certificate to issuing officer within three days, upon demand of minor. Certificate shall be signed by minor; vacation certificates shall be of different color from general certificates. Whenever the State superintendent can not secure effective enforcement of the foregoing provisions in any school district, he is authorized and required to report that fact to the State board of education, and said board shall secure such enforcement by appointing an attendance officer in such district, the salary and expenses of said officer to be a charge against the district to be deducted from State funds apportioned to district. Employer of minors under 16 shall keep posted printed copies of sections of this act relating to hours of labor and also a list of such minors employed. Officer charged with the enforcement of this act may demand of employer evidence that any minor is legally employed; failure to produce such evidence within 10 days and continuing to employ such minor shall constitute prima facie evidence of illegal employment. It shall be the duty of the commissioner of labor and industry, attendance officers, and the police of the various cities, boroughs and townships to enforce the provisions of this act.
Act No. 177, May 13, 1915.

Pennsylvania: Amending secs. 1421 and 1422 of the School Code of 1911, relating to compulsory school attendance and the employment of minors.

Requires employer of minor between 14 and 16 years old to notify school official who issued emyployment certificate within five days after minor leaves said employer's service. Act No. 97, Apr. 23, 1915.

Rhode Island: Amending sec. 1, ch. 78, General Laws of 1909, as amended by ch. 533, Acts of 1910, ch. 653, Acts of 1911, and ch. 956, Acts of 1913, relating to the employment of minors.

Authorizes the State commissioner of public schools to appoint two physicians for the city of Providence to make physical examination of minors between 14 and 16 years of age who apply for employment certificates required by law. Ch. 1258, Apr. 23, 1915.

Rhode Island: Regulating the employment of minors in street occupations.

No boy under 12 years of age and no girl under 16 shall in any street or other public place in any city of over 70,000 population, sell or offer for sale any newspaper, magazine, periodical, or any other article, or exercise the trade of bootblack or scavenger. No boy under 16 shall in any place above mentioned perform any act there mentioned until a permit and badge have been issued to him by the truant officer. No boy under 16 shall, in any place above mentioned perform any act therein mentioned between 9 p. m. and 5 a. m., or, unless holding an employment certificate during the hours when the public schools are in session. Ch. 1264, Apr. 24, 1915.

Rhode Island: Amending sec. 1, ch. 78, of the General Laws, as amended, relating to age and employment certificates of children between 14 and 16 years of age.

Increases from $750 to $1,200 each, the annual salaries of two physicians employed to make physical examination of children applying for employment certificates in the city of Providence. Ch. 1358, Apr. 7, 1916.

Rhode Island: Amending sec. 1, ch. 78, of the General Laws, as amended, relating to age and employment certificates of children between 14 and 16 years of age.

Amendment has effect of requiring that such certificate be delivered to prospective employer (instead of child) and requiring employer, when child's employment ceases, to return certificate to issuing officer (instead of child). Ch. 1378, Apr. 14, 1916.

South Carolina: Amending sec. 422 of the Criminal Code, 1912, relating to the working of children in factories, mines, and textile establishments.

Prohibits such working of children under 14 years of age (old law, 12 years of age). Act No. 361, Feb. 29, 1916.

South Carolina: Amending sec. 421, Vol. II, Code of 1912, relating to employment in cotton and woolen manufacturing establishments.

Prohibits employment for longer than 10 hours a day or 60 hours a week. Act No. 547, Mar. 29, 1916.

South Carolina: Amending sec. 426 of the criminal code, relating to the employment of children in factories, mines, and textile establishments.

Raises from 14 to 16 the age under which children must have permits for employment. No. 95, Feb. 26, 1917.

Tennessee: Amending ch. 57, Acts of 1911, regulating the employment of minors.

Adding "canneries" to places where minors may not be employed. Minors between 14 and 16 years of age shall not be employed in specified occupations more than 8 hours a day, for more than 6 days in any one week, or between 7 p. m. and 6 a. m. Employment certificates regulated. Ch. 77, Apr. 7, 1917.

Texas: Prohibiting the employment of children under 15 years of age to labor in certain occupations, prohibiting the employment of children under 17 years of age to labor in certain occupations, prohibiting the sending of children under 17 years of age to certain places, limiting the hours of labor for children under 15 years of age, providing for permits to be issued by the county judge for children between the ages of 12 and 15 years to labor in certain occupations and under certain conditions, requiring employers employing children between the ages of 12 and 15 years to secure and post permit where child is employed, providing how such permits may be secured, giving the commissioner of labor statistics, or his deputies or inspectors, free access to all places where children or minors are employed, providing penalties for violations of the act and repealing all laws and parts of laws in conflict with the act, and declaring an emergency. Ch. 59, Mar. 6, 1917

Texas: See also H (f), Compulsory attendance.

Utah: Amending sec. 1, ch. 144, Acts of 1911, relating to the employment of children.

Adds to occupations in which children under 14 shall not be employed serving in any "cigar store or stand or in any cigar or tobacco store or place where tobaccos are sold at wholesale or retail." Ch. 61, Mar. 16, 1915

Utah: Amending secs. 1 and 8, ch. 144, Acts of 1911, as amended by ch. 61, Acts of 1915, regulating the employment of children. Ch. 80, Mar. 12, 1917

Vermont: Creating the office of commissioner of industries.

Among other duties, he shall make examinations and investigations to see that the laws relating to the employment of women and minors are complied with. No. 171, Feb. 28, 1917

Vermont: Regulating the employment of women and minors.
No. 177, Apr. 12, 1917

Washington: Authorizing the industrial welfare commission to prescribe rules and regulations for the employment of women and minors in the telephone industry in rural communities and in cities of less than 3,000 population. Ch. 68, Mar. 15, 1915

Wisconsin: Repealing paragraph (1), subsec. 2, sec. 1728a–3, Wisconsin Statutes, and creating a new paragraph in lieu thereof, relating to child labor.

Repealed paragraph describes proofs of child's age required for labor permit. New paragraph authorizes State industrial commission to formulate rules and regulations governing the proof of age of minors applying for labor permits. Ch. 633, July 10, 1917

Wyoming: Regulating the employment of minors.

No child under 18 years old shall be employed where intoxicating liquors are handled; no child under 14 shall be sent as a messenger to a place where intoxicating liquors are handled or to premises used for immoral purposes. No child under 16 years shall be employed in any occupation injurious to morals or health or dangerous to life or limb of such child. No child under 14 shall be employed in any hazardous occupation (as mines, etc.). No child under 14 shall be employed, except in farm work or domestic service, for more than 56 hours in one week or 9 hours in one day. No girl under 18 shall be employed where compelled to stand constantly; employers required to provide seats for girls under 18. Ch. 77, Feb. 24, 1915

H (h). Separation of the Races.

Maryland: See A (a), Administration and supervision, general.

Missouri: See N (a), High schools.

North Carolina: See B (e), State aid for elementary education.

Oklahoma: Amending sec. 13, art. 15, ch. 219, session laws of 1913, relating to separate schools for the colored race.

Such schools placed under the control of the board of education in cities of the first class. Ch. 257, Mar. 27, 1917.

I. SCHOOL DISCIPLINE.

(a) General.

I (b). Corporal Punishment.

Vermont: See A (a), Administration and supervision, general.

I (c). Suspension and Expulsion.

Alabama: See A (c1), County boards.

California: Amending sec. 1685 of the Political Code.

Adds "smoking cigarettes or having cigarettes upon school premises" to the offenses for which pupils may be suspended or expelled from school.
Ch. 466, May 22, 1915.

Mississippi: Amending sec. 4525 of the Mississippi Code of 1906, giving additional powers to trustees of separate school districts so as to give the trustees authority to suspend and dismiss pupils when the best interest of the school makes it necessary. Ch. 185, Mar. 30, 1916.

I (d). Fire Drills.

Connecticut: Directing the governor to designate annually by proclamation a "fire prevention day," to be observed in the public schools.
Ch. 106, Apr. 8, 1915.

Indiana: Relating to fire drills in the public schools.

Requires boards of education, principals, and teachers having charge of schools of more than one room to hold fire drills at least once a month.
Ch. 88, Feb. 28, 1917.

Kansas: Relating to protection against fire, creating the office of State fire marshal, etc.

Among other duties, State fire marshal shall require fire drills in all schools, public and private, at least once a month, and shall require that all doors and exits of schoolrooms be kept unlocked. Ch. 198, Mar. 8, 1917.

Michigan: Creating the office of State fire marshal.

Sec. 10 makes it the duty of the State fire marshal and assistants to require teachers of public and private schools to have one fire drill each month and to keep all doors and exits unlocked during school hours.
Act No. 178, May 11, 1915.

North Dakota: Requiring fire drills in the public schools, providing for fire guards around schoolhouses. Ch. 137, Feb. 27, 1915.

Vermont: See A (a), Administration and supervision, general.

Wisconsin: Providing for fire drills in educational institutions.

Teacher or other person in charge of public, private, or parochial school, high school, college, or normal school must hold at least once a month a fire drill to instruct persons in attendance in orderly and rapid departure from buildings over one story high. Ch. 63, Apr. 6, 1917.

I (e). School Fraternities.

Iowa: Amending sec. 2782a, Supplement to the Code, 1913, relating to prohibition of secret societies in the public schools.

Strikes out the word "secret" so as to make it unlawful for a pupil to join any society or fraternity not sanctioned by the school authorities.
Ch. 158, Apr. 7, 1917.

Massachusetts: Permitting the graduates of a designated professional or vocational school to organize fraternal benefit societies without the lodge system.
Ch. 4, Feb. 18, 1916.

Minnesota: Granting additional powers to school boards and authorizing them to take charge of, disburse money for, and control all school and quasi school activities of teachers and children in the public schools of their respective districts, and providing for the receipt and disbursement of certain donations to the district.
Ch. 112, Mar. 28, 1917.

Vermont: See A (a), Administration and supervision, general.

J. HEALTH REGULATIONS.

(a). General.

Arizona: Unlawful to furnish common towels and common drinking cups in public places.
Ch. 53, Mar. 14, 1917.

California: Preventing the providing for common use of receptacles for drinking purposes in public places.
Ch. 744, June 1, 1917.

New Hampshire: See F (a), Teachers' contracts, duties, etc.

Wisconsin: Requiring teachers to send home insanitary pupils and to notify district clerk or superintendent of schools and the parents or guardians of such pupils.
Ch. 97, Apr. 17, 1917.

J (b). Physical Examination and Medical Inspection.

Alabama: Amending secs. 706 and 707 of the Code of 1907, relating to county health officers.

When county commissioners employ a health officer for his entire time, one of his duties shall be to inspect the schools at least once a year. He shall also instruct the people in the prevention of disease.
Act No. 707, p. 782, Sept. 25, 1915.

Connecticut: Amending sec. 1, ch. 207, Acts of 1907, relating to the appointment of school physicians.

Directs school boards or boards of school visitors in cities, towns, and districts of over 10,000 population to appoint one or more school physicians; in cities, towns, and districts of less than 10,000. such physicians may be appointed; in cities or towns where board of health is providing adequate medical inspection, school board is relieved of such duty. No physical examination shall be made of a female pupil except by a woman physician, or except after notice to parent or guardian by a man in the presence of parent or guardian or a female nurse. (The act of 1907 was not mandatory for municipalities of over 10,000 population.)
Ch. 275, May 18, 1915.

Florida: Providing for the medical inspection of public-school children and for their subsequent treatment.

State board of health shall have supervision of the medical inspection of school children; all school children shall be examined as to their physical conition at least once in each school year. Said board shall formulate rules and egulations governing such inspection. County physician shall be medical nspector; in counties where no such physician is employed, county commisoners shall appoint a county medical inspector; where there are more than 500 school children in county, two such inspectors shall be appointed. This ct shall not apply to city of over 5,000 inhabitants which already maintains nspection, if forms prescribed by State board are used and required reports re made to State board. Expenses shall be paid out of State board of health unds. Ch. 6829 (No. 23), June 4, 1915.

Kansas: Authorizing cities having a population of 40,000 or more to provide ree dental inspection for all children in the public schools.
Ch. 308, Mar. 17, 1915.

Kansas: Creating a division of child hygiene in the State board of health.
Ch. 269, Mar. 6, 1915.

Maine: Amending sec. 4, ch. 173, Public Laws of 1909, relating to the physial examination of pupils entering school after absence on account of sickness.

Provides that such pupils returning without a physician's certificate shall be xamined by the school physician "whenever in the judgment of the teacher the circumstances of the absence were such as to require such a certificate."
Ch. 174, Mar. 24, 1915.

Maine: Amending sec. 44, ch. 18 of the Revised Statutes, relating to the State board of health.

Authorizes said board to determine for what diseases schoolrooms shall be disinfected. Ch. 338, Apr. 2, 1915.

Nevada: Requiring the examination of all school children to ascertain if they have defective eyesight or hearing, or diseased teeth, or if they are addicted to mouth-breathing.

Teachers to make such examinations. Ch. 193, Mar. 24, 1917.

New Hampshire: Requiring the school board of every city, union, special, or town school district to submit to the qualified electors the question of providing medical inspection of schools as prvided in ch. 83, Acts of 1913.
Ch. 114, Apr. 3, 1917.

New York: Amending the education law in relation to the employment of medical inspectors.

Omits provision that medical inspector of union district or common-school district shall reside in district or town in which district is located.
Ch. 182, Apr. 11, 1916.

North Carolina: Providing for the physical examination of school children at regular intervals. Ch. 244, Mar. 7, 1917.

North Dakota: Amending sec. 1346, Compiled Laws of 1913, relating to medical inspection of pupils in the public schools.

Requires school board to employ a medical inspector whenever petitioned by a majority of the persons having children attending public schools of the district. Ch. 133, Feb. 12, 1915.

North Dakota: Amending sec. 1346, Compiled Laws, 1913, as amended by ch. 133, Acts of 1915, relating to the medical inspection of pupils in public schools.

In addition to medical inspection by districts as already provided by law, county commissioners must now provide such inspection for counties, when petitioned by two-thirds of the district school directors of the county.
S. B. 82, p. 208, Pop. Ed., Mar. 9, 1917.

Pennsylvania: Authorizing any school district to provide for the care and treatment of defective eyes and teeth of all pupils of the public schools.
Act No. 335, July 17, 1917.

Philippines: Creating a board of dental hygiene for the purpose of lishing and maintaining free dental clinics for children matriculated in and private schools of primary instruction in the Philippine Islands.
Act No. 2490, Feb. 5,

Rhode Island: Providing for the care of children's teeth.

In towns providing medical inspection for schools, school physician or person employed to make examination shall report dental defects to tendent of schools, who shall make provision for keeping records and parents or custodians of children. School committee may provide at expense of the town proper dental treatment for children suffering from defects when parents or custodians fail to provide the same within one after receiving notice. Ch. 1484, Apr. 14,

Vermont: Providing for the medical inspection of schools.

The school directors of any town or city or the school committee of incorporated district shall appoint one or more medical inspectors of when directed by vote of people of such town, city, or district. Said shall examine pupils of schools of the town under rules prescribed by board of health; under same rules said inspectors shall inspect pupils private school when requested by principal thereof or in case of the of a communicable disease. When parent or guardian of a pupil so in writing, inspection of such pupil may be made by a physician other the appointed medical inspector and such inspection shall be in lieu of inspection, but shall not be made at expense of the town. "Medical defined to mean a licensed physician or a trained nurse.
Act No. 72, Mar. 30,

Wyoming: Providing for the physical examination of public-school

Every teacher in the public schools of incorporated cities and towns separately and carefully test and examine every child under his or her to ascertain if such child is suffering from defect of sight or hearing or of nose or throat, but such examination shall be made without using or instruments or coming into physical contact with pupils. State tendent shall prescribe rules for such examination and shall furnish blanks, etc. Tests to be made at opening of school year and as children school. District boards of trustees shall enforce the provisions of this act.
Ch. 1277 Mar. 2, 1915.

J (c). Vaccination.

New York: Amending the public-health law, in relation to vaccination.

Requires school children to be vaccinated in cities of the first and the second class. (Amended law required all school children to be vaccinated.) Wher- ever smallpox exists in any other city or school district, and the State commis- sioner of health so certifies, school authorities of such city or district shall exclude from school all unvaccinated children. Cost of said vaccination shall be a charge against the municipality. Ch. 133, Mar. 30, 1915.

Rhode Island: Amending sec. 10, ch. 73, General Laws of 1909, relating to the vaccination of public-school pupils.

Exempts from the law requiring vaccination any pupil who produces a certificate from a practicing physician to the effect that such pupil is not a fit subject for vaccination. Ch. 1201, Apr. 21, 1915.

K. TEXTBOOKS AND SUPPLIES.

(a) General.

K (b). Free Textbooks.

also K (c), Uniformity of textbooks.

bama: Amending sec. 1842 of the Code of 1907, relating to uniformity of
oks.

rides that books shall be furnished to municipalities and districts furnish-
ee textbooks at contract price less commission allowed to agents or
tories. Act No. 339, p. 343, Aug. 27, 1915.

ansas: See H (f), Compulsory attendance.

fornia: Providing for free textbooks in State institutions giving instruc-
the elementary branches. Ch. 104, Apr. 24, 1915.

fornia: See also N (a), High schools.

ida: Providing for free textbooks for children attending the public
of Escambia County. Ch. 7470, May 24, 1917.

ida: Authorizing the county board of public instruction of Clay County
ish school books free to children attending the public schools of said
Ch. 7446, May 16, 1917.

: Amending sec. 2836, Supplement to the Code, 1913, relating to free
ks.

tion of furnishing free textbooks shall be submitted to voters of the dis-
petition of 10 per cent of the qualified voters. (Older law, "one-third
of the legal voters.") Ch. 56, Mar. 23, 1917.

as: See K (c), Uniform textbooks.

iana: See H (f), Compulsory attendance; A (a), Administration and
sion, general.

land: See A (a), Administration and supervision, general.

igan: Amending sec. 1, Act No. 147, Public Acts of 1889, relating to
tbooks.

ct school boards, when authorized by vote of the people, shall provide
tbooks for all grades of public schools. (Was elementary grades only.)
Act No. 52, Apr. 14, 1915.

ssippi: See K (c), Uniformity of textbooks.

uri: Authorizing school boards to purchase textbooks for poor children.
H. B. 402, p. 388, Mar. 23, 1915.

ana: Amending sec. 1811, ch. 76, Acts of 1913, relating to free textbooks.

res school boards to furnish books free to both elementary and high
upils. (Amended law was permissive.) Ch. 12, Feb. 8, 1917.

ska: See A (f), Administrative units—districts, etc.

n: Repealing ch. 268, Acts of 1913.

led chapter authorized district school boards to provide free textbooks
lc school pupils. Ch. 28, Feb. 4, 1915.

Carolina: See H (f), Compulsory attendance.

ssee: Authorizing the governor to appoint a commission of three citi-
nvestigate and report upon the practicability of establishing a State
f free textbooks; directing such commission to report to the next
f the legislature. S. R. No. 16, p. 607, Mar. 11, 1915.

: Authorizing any common or independent school district levying a
hool tax to provide free textbooks for children of school age.

Question to be determined by majority vote of qualified tax-paying voters of the district. Ch. 184, Mar. 30, [illegible]

Texas: See also H (f), Compulsory attendance.

Vermont: See A (a), Administration and supervision, general.

Virginia: Providing for free textbooks in the public schools.

By majority vote, the electors of a district or county may direct the school board to furnish textbooks at public expense. Act not to apply in county or district in which school term is not at least seven months long. Ch. 410, Mar. 21, 1916.

K (c). Uniformity of Textbooks.

Alabama: See K (b), Free textbooks.

Arkansas: Establishing a State textbook commission and providing for a uniform system of textbooks for the common schools of the State. Act 112, Feb. 20, 1917.

Arkansas: Amending secs. 13 and 25, Act 112, Acts of 1917, providing for a uniform system of textbooks. Act 140, Feb. 27, 1917.

California: See N (a), High schools.

Florida: Authorizing the State schoolbook commission to extend the time limit of five years for renewing contracts for purchases of textbooks to July 1, 1917. Ch. 6834 (No. 28), May 28, 1915.

Florida: Amending secs. 2, 3, 13, 14, 18, and 20, ch. 6178, Acts of 1911, relating to uniform textbooks.

Provides for State uniformity of textbooks. Includes high-school books. Ch. 7374, June 9, 1917.

Georgia: "An act to authorize boards of education of counties, cities, local school districts, and district agricultural schools to adopt school books, other than the regular basal elementary school books provided for by the uniform textbook law, from an approved list issued by the State board of education, and to purchase all school books and sell, rent, or furnish them free to pupils; to require publishers to file sample copies of all school books to be sold in the State with the State superintendent of schools; to require publishers to sell school books to public school authorities in this State at the lowest net wholesale prices given anywhere in the United States; to require publishers to give bond to the State; to provide punishment and penalties for the violation of this act, and for other purposes." No. 457, p. 104, Aug. 18, 1916.

Illinois: Regulating the adoption, sale, and distribution of school textbooks.

Person wishing to offer such books for sale must file copies of same with price list in the office of State superintendent. Must give bond to guarantee fair prices, quality, etc. State superintendent to furnish lists to district school officers. School boards to notify State superintendent of violations of publisher's agreement; said superintendent to institute necessary legal proceedings. Duty of school boards to adopt books listed under this act. Retail dealer not to sell books in excess of 15 per cent above net price. District may buy books and sell to pupils or may designate a dealer. When a family removes from a district, clerk of district may, out of contingent fund of the district, purchase books of pupils so removing. S. B. 116, p. 754, June 27, 1917.

Indiana: Relating to uniform textbooks.

Adds texts in "domestic science, agriculture, and industrial arts" to texts to be selected by State board of education. Strikes out provision that total cost for a series of books selected shall not exceed $6. Ch. 138, Mar. 8, 1917.

Indiana: Regulating the adoption and sale of textbooks and providing for optional high-school texts. Ch. 146, Mar. 8, 1917.

Kansas: Amending secs. 3, 8, 9, 10, and 13 of ch. 288, Session Laws of 1913, relating to the State schoolbook commission.

lds high-school books to those which may be published by the State; au- izes school-book commission to adopt books for subjects in enumerated list a it is impracticable for the State to print them. Raises from 10 per cent 5 per cent the commission allowed dealers for handling books; requires ity commissioners in counties where no dealer will handle books to pro- a revolving fund for purpose of purchasing books and supplying the same ›atrons. Requires secretary of commission to pay over to State treasury kly (was daily) all moneys received for books. State school-book commis- may adopt supplementary readers; such supplementary books when used .l be furnished free by school district. Ch. 297, Mar. 24, 1915,

ansas: Defining the powers and duties of the State schoolbook commission elation to the sale of textbooks. Ch. 292, Mar. 13, 1917.

entucky: Amending subsecs. 5 and 14, sec. 4421a, Kentucky Statutes of 5, relating to the State textbook commission.

.uthorizes commission, at the expiration of existing contracts, to make new tracts for not exceeding five years on not exceeding three branches in any year, the object being to make only a gradual change in books. Provides t when local dealer has not sufficient financial rating to satisfy contractor, may give bond which, when approved by county superintendent, shall suf- . Ch. 8, Mar. 4, 1916.

lississippi: An act to provide for the adoption and purchase of school text- ›ks for agricultural high schools, separate school districts, county public .ools, not otherwise provided by law; to require all publishers to file samples all books to be sold in the State with the State superintendent of education; require all publishers to sell school textbooks to public authorities at not re than 75 per cent of the price list; to require publishers to give bond to ; State; and to provide punishment and penalties for the violation of this act.

Sample of books, other than those provided for under the uniform textbook v, shall be filed with the State superintendent; publisher shall give bond between $2,000 and $10,000, according to number of books offered for sale; blishers shall sell books at not exceeding 75 per cent of price list, shall reduce ice automatically in Mississippi whenever reductions are made elsewhere, all make no reduction in quality of books, and shall enter no agreement or mbination to control the prices of books. State superintendent shall furnish ts to local school authorities, who shall make adoptions therefrom for five ars, purchase necessary books from publishers, and sell the same to pupils not exceeding 15 per cent in advance of net price. Retailer may not sell ›oks in advance of said 15 per cent. When pupil removes from a district hool authorities thereof shall purchase such pupil's books if so requested. hool boards may provide free textbooks. Ch. 179, Apr. 6, 1916.

Montana: Amending secs. 1803 and 1805, ch. 76, Acts of 1913, relating to ›ntracts for supplying basal and supplementary textbooks.

Includes "elementary agriculture" among books to be adopted. Supplement- y books to be used only in connection with basal books. Minor amendment s to shipments. Ch. 94, Mar. 3, 1917.

Nevada: Amending sec. 165, ch. 133, Acts of 1911, relating to uniformity of extbooks.

Amendment provides that State's contract with publisher shall provide that tate or any district may purchase books direct from publishers. Requirement hat publishers keep books on hand in depositories in each county is omitted rom the section. Ch. 231, Mar. 24, 1915.

North Dakota: An act to provide uniformity of school textbooks in each of he common, independent, and special school districts; to regulate the sale ınd price of same; to provide for selection, adoption, and contrast by common ›chool district boards and boards of education of independent and special ›chool districts, and the sale of same through purchasing agents of such boards, ›r the purchase direct of such books and sale at cost or loan free of expense o pupils. Ch. 145, Mar. 1, 1915.

Ohio: See A (f), Administrative units—districts, etc.

Tennessee: Amending ch. 205, Acts of 1899, relating to State textbook mission.

Has effect of eliminating governor from said commission. Commission composed of State board of education and superintendent of public in tion. Ch. 72, Apr. 7, 19

Texas: Amending ch. 11, Acts of the first called session of 1911, provi for the adoption of a system of uniform textbooks in the State.

Provides that all textbooks adopted for use in the public schools mus "printed, bound, completed, and finished" within the State; all typesetting other mechanical labor connected with the printing of said books shall be p formed within the State; no textbook shall be adopted or contracted for a higher price than a similar book of equal or better quality would cost if m ufactured elsewhere. Publishers may be permitted to contract for the pri ing, binding, and completion of books outside the State upon giving satisfac proof that said publishers can contract for editions of equal size and qu at a substantially lower price outside the State. Ch. 112, Mar. 23, 19

Virginia: See A (b1), State boards.

Wisconsin: Creating secs. 553m-101 to 553m-108 of the Statutes, regula the sale, prices, and manner of supply of school textbooks.

Person offering textbooks for adoption, sale, or exchange must (1) copies thereof in the office of the State superintendent with price lists, a and a sworn statement as to sale or exchange price at which books are offer elsewhere in the United States; (2) file with State superintendent a bond i penal sum determined by said superintendent, but not less than $2,000. Su superintendent shall annually publish and send to each school district a co of all lists in force in his office. It is the duty of all teachers and princip to report violations of conditions of bond to city or county superintendent ha ing supervision of their respective schools and such superintendent shall inves gate and report to State superintendent who may suspend right of violator do business in the State or, after continued violation, may declare bond fo feited, and attorney general shall bring suit thereon. No person shall offe or promise reward to a teacher or school officer for aid in securing the sa of a book, but samples may be submitted. School districts may purchase books at listed prices and furnish them to pupils at said listed prices plus cost handling. Misdemeanor to violate this act. Ch. 460, July 29, 1915

Wisconsin: Repealing sec. 509 of the Statutes, relating to the purchase an sale of dictionaries by the State to schools.

Repealed section authorized the State superintendent to furnish dictionaries at cost to district schools. Ch. 426, July 20, 1915

Wisconsin: Creating secs. 553m-109 to 553m-112, Wisconsin Statutes, reg lating the sale and manner of supply of school textbooks.

Ch. 499, June 26, 1917

L. SUBJECT MATTER OF INSTRUCTION.

(a) General; Course of Study.

California: Amending sec. 1665 of the Political Code, relating to the elemen tary school curriculum.

Provides that in the first six grades at least three-fourths of the pupil's time shall be devoted to study and recitation in reading, writing, spelling, arithmetic, geography, language and grammar, United States history and civics, elements of physiology and hygiene, morals and manners. In the seventh and eighth grades at least 12½ hours of the pupils' time each week must be devoted to such subjects. From the time remaining instruction must be given in nature study with special reference to agriculture and bird life, physical culture, music, drawing and elementary bookkeeping, and humane education. Manual training and domestic science may be given. Ch. 467, May 22, 1915

alifornia: Amending sec. 1779 of the Political Code, relating to the estab- ment of postgraduate elementary school courses.

irects county board of education, when requested by trustees of any com- a school district not included in any city district, union, or joint union high- ool district and on approval of county superintendent, to prescribe for such rict a course of study for one or two years of postgraduate work as desired. nmon-school district may, with approval of principal of high school, estab- postgraduate courses. These courses are designed to be largely commer- , but may include agriculture, manual arts, stenography, and typewriting.
Ch. 97, Apr. 23, 1915.

alifornia: See also N (a), High schools.

awaii: Providing for the preparation of readers suitable to the purposes the public schools of Hawaii. Act No. 120, Apr. 19, 1915.

daho: Amending sec. 187, ch. 159, Acts of 1911, as last amended by ch. 57, s of 1915, relating to eighth grade examinations.

xamination questions to be prepared by State board of education (formerly, te superintendent). Said board may modify provisions of the law relative such examinations. Ch. 19, Mar. 5, 1917.

daho: Prescribing certain changes to be made in the State course of study; thorizing the State board of education to appoint an advisory commission the course of study and to direct its work.

Said course to be so drawn that the "fundamentals" may be covered in the nimum term of seven months. Additional matter to be provided for schools ving longer terms. In place of such additional matter, pupils taking the orter term may be allowed credit for work at home, on the farm, etc.
Ch. 129, Mar. 15, 1917.

Indiana: See E (b), Teachers' certificates, general.

Kansas: See A (b1), State boards; E (b), Teachers' certificates, general; (a), High schools.

Maine: Amending paragraph 7, sec. 100, ch. 15, of the Revised Statutes, lating to the course of study in common schools.

Provides that course prescribed by State superintendent shall be followed, t course arranged by town school committee and having approval of State perintendent shall be the authorized course for said town.
Ch. 198, Mar. 24, 1915.

Maryland: See A (a), Administration and supervision, general.

Michigan: Repealing Act No. 181, Public Acts of 1897, being "An act to escribe and define a course of studies to be taught in the district schools in is State which shall be known as the Agricultural College Course."
Act No. 26, Mar. 30, 1915.

Oregon: Requesting the State superintendent of public instruction to see at the course of study in the public schools is simplified.
S. J. R. No. 17, Feb. 10, 1915.

Tennessee: Defining the courses of study in the public schools, defining and esignating the grades to be taught in the elementary schools and secondary hools, and designating the schools that may be operated and controlled by e county board of education. Ch. 80, Apr. 7, 1917.

Texas: Amending art. 2783, Civil Statutes of 1914, relating to subjects re- uired to be taught in the common schools.

Adds "cotton grading" to such subjects; provides that elementary agricul- re shall include "certain practical field studies and laboratory experiments"; rovides that each summer normal institute and each county teachers' institute hall employ at least one instructor specially prepared to give instruction in griculture. Ch. 83, Mar. 22, 1915.

Texas: See also A (c1), County boards.

Vermont: Providing for a supplementary reader on Vermont industries and resources. Act No. 71, Mar. 9, 1917.

Vermont: See also A (a), Administration and supervision, general.

West Virginia: See E (b), Teachers' certificates, general.

Wisconsin: Amending the first paragraph and subdivision first of sec. 4 and subsec. 4 of sec. 20.24, Wisconsin Statutes, relating to school courses and reports. Ch. 237, May 17, 1917.

L (b). History, Civics, Patriotism.

Connecticut: Requiring the teaching of citizenship to pupils above the fourth grade in the public schools. Ch. 272, May 18, 1917.

Kansas: See E (b), Teachers' certificates, general.

Maine: Resolve appropriating money for the publication and circulation of a school text in civics, local geography and local history. Resolve, ch. 137, Mar. 22, 1917.

Massachusetts: Providing for training in the duties of citizenship in the public schools. Ch. 169, Apr. 11, 1917.

Michigan: Amending sec. 1, Act. No. 11, Public Acts of 1911, and adding a new section providing for patriotic educational qualifications for graduation from the eighth grade.

Makes it the duty of every teacher in the public schools to cause the Declaration of Independence to be read to his or her pupils above the fifth grade on February 12, February 22, and October 12. New section provides that all applicants for eighth-grade diplomas shall be required as a part of the eighth grade examination to write from memory the first verse of the Star Spangled Banner and all the words of America. Act No. 223, May 13, 1915.

Nevada: See N (a), High schools.

Texas: Requiring instruction in Texas history in the public schools. Ch. 112, Mar. 28, 1917.

West Virginia: See E (b), Teachers' certificates, general.

L (c). Physical Education.

Arizona: Providing for the organization, control, and equipment of State normal and high school cadet companies, and for the promotion of rifle practice therein, and making an appropriation therefor. Ch. 59, Mar. 14, 1917.

California: Providing for the organization and supervision of courses in physical education in the elementary, secondary and normal schools of the State and appropriating $10,000 therefor. Ch. 668, May 26, 1917.

California: See also L (a), Course of study.

Illinois: Providing for physical education in the public and normal schools of the State.

Requires boards to provide such training. S. B. 401, p. 694, June 25, 1915.

Indiana: Providing for military instruction in the high schools of the State.

Whenever the high school of any city or town offers military instruction approved by United States Government and receives arms, etc., from said Government, school board of such city or town may pay from special school fund for transportation of such arms, etc., and for necessary equipment. Military instructors, other than those detailed by the National Government, must hold certificates issued by State board of education; may act as physical directors. Military training not compulsory. Ch. 59, Mar. 5, 1917.

Louisiana: Providing for military instruction in the public schools.

Such instruction to be given when practicable to male pupils above the eighth grade. Act No. 131, July 5, 1916.

Maryland: An act authorizing the appointment of a special board or comsion to report upon the practicability of providing military instruction and creating a military reserve. Ch. 28, Mar. 14, 1916.

Massachusetts: Authorizing approved military organizations of students to ll and parade with firearms. Ch. 8, Feb. 18, 1916.

Massachusetts: Providing for the appointment of a special board to consider subject of physical training for boys and girls in the public schools. Resolve 90, May 16, 1916.

Michigan: Requiring the establishment of a course of military training in high schools, such course to be optional with students. Act No. 185, May 2, 1917.

Michigan: See also E (c), Teachers' certificates, special.

Nevada: See N (a), High schools.

New Jersey: An act to create and provide for a commission to investigate d report upon military training and instruction for national defense in high hools. Ch. 211, Mar. 18, 1916.

New Jersey: Providing for courses in physical training in the public schools.

Such training required in all schools. Commissioner of education to cause urse to be prepared. Instruction two and one-half hours per week. State ard of education may require military training in high schools, and all ale high-school pupils not physically unfit and whose parents are not conientiously opposed shall take such training. If said board does not require ch training, question of requiring the same may be voted on by qualified oters of the district. Ch. 107, Mar. 23, 1917.

New York: Amending the military law, in relation to a military training mmission and to military and disciplinary training.

Provides for the appointment of a military training commission which shall dvise and confer with the board of regents as directed in chapter 567, Laws 1916, in matters relating to physical training and discipline in the schools. fter September 1, 1916, all boys above the age of 16 and not over 19 (except ys exempted by the commission) shall be given such military training as the mmission may prescribe for periods aggregating not more than three hours each week during the school or college year. A system of field training for ys is also provided. Ch. 566, May 15, 1916.

New York: Amending the education law, in relation to courses of instruction physical training and discipline in the schools of the State.

Provides that after the first day of September, 1916, all pupils above the age f 8 years in all elementary and secondary schools shall receive as part of the rescribed courses of instruction such physical training as the regents, after onference with the military training commission, may determine during periods hich shall average at least 20 minutes in each school day. Boards of education and trustees of cities and school districts are directed to provide the precribed instruction in the public schools thereof under the direction of the comnissioner of education and in accordance with the rules of the regents of the niversity. Provision is made for the employment of a teacher of physical raining by two or more contiguous school districts and the apportionment of he salary of such teacher among such districts. Where competent teachers re employed by cities and school districts for the purpose of furnishing physial instruction as provided in this act, the commissioner of education is reuired to apportion from the public moneys a sum equal to one-half the salary aid to each such teacher on account of instruction given in such courses but not exceeding $600 on account of a single teacher during a school year. Ch. 567, May 15, 1916.

New York: Amending the military law, relative to military and disciplinary training.

Has effect of requiring all boys between the ages of 16 and 19, unless exempted by the military training commission, to take military training not exceeding three hours each week between September 1 and June 15. But such training may, in the discretion of the commission, be met in part by vocational training or vocational experience. Ch. 49, Mar. 15, 1917.

Oklahoma: Authorizing boards of education and school district boards maintaining a high school to provide for military and athletic training, providing competitive drills and contests, and providing for the appointment of a State board to govern such drills and contests. Ch. 246, Mar. 23, 1917.

Oregon: Authorizing the teaching of military tactics and training in the high schools of the State.

Any high-school district may provide military training. Approved schools may receive rifles, etc., from the State. Students not required to take such training. Ch. 383, Feb. 21, 1917.

Rhode Island: Providing for physical training for school children.

Requires physical training of children over the age of 8 years in the public schools; State board of education to prescribe or approve rules and regulations for such training. Private schools and private instruction approved under the compulsory attendance law must include physical training.
Ch. 1541, Apr. 19, 1917.

L (d). Physiology and Hygiene; Alcohol; Narcotics; Other Health Instruction.

California: Requiring in teachers' training classes in normal schools instruction as to best method of teaching effects of alcohol and narcotics on the human system. Ch. 130, Apr. 27, 1917.

California: See also L (a), Course of study.

Delaware: Adding 2275A, sec. 3A, to ch. 71, Revised Code of 1915.

State board of education shall require that first aid to the injured be taught in public schools of 12 or more grades. Ch. 175, Apr. 19, 1917.

Florida: Requiring the teaching of the evils of alcoholic beverages and narcotics to children in the primary grades of the public schools.
Ch. 6832 (No. 26), June 1, 1915.

Kansas: See E (b), Teachers' certificates, general.

Oklahoma: Requiring scientific temperance instruction in the public schools and all educational institutions supported wholly or in part by State funds.
Ch. 10, Feb. 3, 1915.

Tennessee: To provide for the education of the school children of the State as to the evils of intemperance; and to provide for setting aside the fourth Friday in October of each scholastic year to be called Frances E. Willard Day and to provide for a suitable program to be rendered on that day.
Ch. 134, May 17, 1915.

West Virginia: See E (b), Teachers' certificates, general.

L (e). Moral and Ethical Instruction.

California: See L (a), Course of study.

L (f). Humane Treatment of Animals.

California: See L (a), Course of study.

Maine: Amending sec. 108, ch. 16, Revised Statutes of 1916, requiring teachers to devote not less than one-half hour of each week to teaching "the great principles of humanity as illustrated by kindness to birds and animals and regard for all factors which contribute to the well being of man."
Ch. 228, Apr. 7, 1917.

New York: Amending the education law, relating to instruction in the ele-ntary schools in the humane treatment of animals and birds.

Requires such instruction in schools receiving State moneys.

Ch. 210, Apr. 19, 1917.

Wisconsin: Creating sec. 477h of the Statutes, providing for instruction in e public schools in subjects relating to the humane treatment and protection dumb animals and birds. Ch. 102, Apr. 17, 1917.

L (g). Music.

California: See L (a), Course of study.

Colorado: See A (d), District boards and officers.

Michigan: See E (c), Teachers' certificates, special.

South Dakota: See N (a), High schools.

L (h). Drawing.

California: See L (a), Course of study.

Colorado: See A (d), District boards and officers.

Michigan: See E (c), Teachers' certificates, special.

L (i). Technical, Manual, and Industrial Education.

Arkansas: See G (b), State normal schools; L (j), Agriculture.

California: See L (a), Course of study.

Colorado: See A (d), District boards and officers.

Connecticut: Providing State aid for county corporations or associations rganized for the promotion of agriculture and home economics.

When such corporation or association promotes agriculture and home eco-omics in a manner to receive the benefits of the Smith Lever Act, State will ay amount equal to sum received under said act. Ch. 365, May 16, 1917.

Florida: Authorizing county boards of public instruction or trustees of spe-ial tax school districts to establish and maintain departments of home eco-omics and home demonstration work in the public schools.

Ch. 6833 (No. 27), May 27, 1915.

Idaho: Authorizing boards of county commissioners to appropriate funds or county demonstration work in agriculture and home economics.

Ch. 157, Mar. 14, 1917.

Indiana: See K (c), Uniformity of textbooks.

Iowa: Relating to instruction in agriculture, domestic science, and manual raining in the public schools.

Requires teachers of manual training to be examined in that subject.

School law, 1915, p. 72.

Iowa: Amending sec. 2775a, Supplemental Supplement to the Code, 1915, relating to instruction in agriculture, domestic science, and manual training.

Board of directors of any rural school district may dispense with such instruction. Ch. 319, Apr. 23, 1917.

Iowa: See also M (d), Vacation schools, playgrounds, etc.

Kentucky: See L (j), Agriculture.

Louisiana: See A (a), Administration and supervision, general.

Maine: See M (c), Evening schools.

Maryland: See A (a), Administration and supervision, general.

Michigan: See E (c), Teachers' certificates, special; O (b), Agricultural schools.

Minnesota: Defining and providing for instruction in industrial subjects public schools.

Industrial subjects include agriculture, home making, manual training commercial training. Any approved high, graded, or consolidated rural may be designated by State board of education to give industrial courses receive State aid therefor. Any school receiving State aid under Chapter General Laws of 1909, providing aid for departments in agriculture, training and domestic economy, may continue to receive aid under this Instructors shall possess qualifications fixed by State board. School maintaining course in agriculture may acquire land for garden and agricultural poses; instruction shall be practical. One or more rural school districts become associated with district maintaining industrial courses under this for purpose of receiving benefits of such courses; such asociation must approval of central school board and of State board; superintendent or cipal of central school shall have supervision over associated schools. "associated school board" shall consist of boards of central district and ciated districts. Associated districts may vote a tax of not exceeding 2 assist in maintenance of central school. High, graded, and consolidated schools providing courses under this act shall each receive State aid to of $1,000 for agricultural course and $600 for each course in home manual training and commercial training; associated rural districts shall receive $50 annually; central district shall receive $200 annually for associated district. In case State board of education shall not be provided by law, the authority herein granted shall be vested in the State high board and the State superintendent. Ch. 239, Apr. 21, 19

Minnesota: See also B (e), State aid for elementary education; H (e), solidation of districts, etc.

Nebraska: See N (a), High schools; O (a), Industrial education, general.

Nevada: See H (e), Consolidation of districts, etc.; N (a), High schools.

New Jersey: Authorizing the State board of education to adopt rules ing the management, control and approval of courses of study in industrial education or manual training as adopted by the several districts.

Ch. 249, Mar. 29, 191

New York: Amending the education law, relative to the employment directors of agriculture, mechanic arts and homemaking in cities, towns school districts. Ch. 560, May 18, 191

New York: See also U (e), Schools for dependents and delinquents.

North Carolina: See L (j), Agriculture; N (a), High schools.

Texas: See A (c1), County boards.

Vermont: See B (e), State aid for elementary education; N (a), High schools.

West Virginia: See E (b), Teachers' certificates, general.

Wisconsin: See O (b), Agricultural schools.

L (j). Agriculture.

See also O (b), Agricultural schools.

Alabama: Providing for the organization of farm boys and girls into corn clubs, pig clubs, canning clubs, poultry clubs, and any other kind of farm-life clubs.

State appropriates $100 for each county on condition that county provide an equal amount. Fund to be expended under the joint supervision of State board of agriculture and county commissioners, or like county authorities.
Act. No. 827, p. 943, Sept. 28, 1915.

Arkansas: To encourage and aid in the teaching of elementary agriculture, me economics, and manual training in rural and village high schools, and the training of teachers for rural elementary schools.

State board of education to designate certain rural and village high schools receive State aid; said board to prepare outlines of courses of study and to etermine the qualifications and fitness of teachers of such subjects. Graduates elementary schools to be admitted free. City or town of over 1,000 population not to receive such aid. Maximum aid: To four-year high school, $500; three-year high school, $400; to two-year high school, $300; no county to receive more than 5 per cent of total fund, provided by this act. State board of lucation to designate four-year high schools in which teacher-training shall be iven; not more than one high school in a county shall be aided for teacheraining. Teachers' certificates to be issued to graduates of teacher-trainng courses. Sum of $40,000 appropriated for agriculture, home economics and anual training ,and $10,000 for teacher-training.

Act. 457, Mar. 28, 1917.

California: See L (a), Course of study.

Connecticut: See L (i), Manual and industrial education.

Idaho: See L (i), Manual and industrial training.

Indiana: See K (c), Uniformity of textbooks.

Iowa: See L (i), Manual and industrial education; M (d), Vacation schools, laygrounds, etc.

Kansas: Authorizing boards of education in cities of the second class, in hich there is located a county high school maintaining a course in agriulture and a course in farm mechanics, to purchase and hold land for the eaching of agriculture. Ch. 319, Mar. 11, 1915.

Kansas: See also E (b), Teachers' certificates, general.

Kentucky: "An act relating to agricultural extension work and home economics; accepting the provisions of the act of Congress providing for coöperative extension work between agricultural colleges, which act was approved May 8, 1914; providing that such work shall be done under the direction of the Kentucky University, Lexington, Ky.; changing the name of said niversity to University of Kentucky; amending and reenacting sec. 1, ch. 3, cts of 1908; amending and reenacting sec. 15, Kentucky Statutes, 1903; providng for the appointment of trustees of the University of Kentucky; creating an xtension committee to have charge of extension work under the supervision of the University of Kentucky; providing for the election of an executive committee for the University of Kentucky; amending and reenacting sec. 13 of the act of Mar. 21, 1906, creating the State board of agriculture, forestry, and immigration; repealing sec. 2 of an act for the benefit of the department of agriculture, labor, and statistics approved March 11, 1912; appropriating money for the University of Kentucky; providing for the establishment of a marketing bureau; authorizing the fiscal courts of the counties and the boards of education of counties to appropriate money for extension work, and amending and reenacting sec. 5 of an act for the benefit of the department of agriculture approved March 21, 1906. Ch. 20, Mar. 15, 1916.

Louisiana: See A (a), Administration and supervision, general.

Maryland: See A (a), Administration and supervision, general.

Massachusetts: Further extending the time for the report of the special commission on agricultural education and development.

Time extended to second Wednesday in January, 1918.

Ch. 81 (Resolves), May 9, 1917.

Massachusetts: See also O (b), Agricultural schools.

Michigan: See O (b), Agricultural schools.

Minnesota: See B (e), State aid for elementary education; H (e), Consolidation of district, etc.; L (i), Manual and industrial education.

Montana: Adding the study of elementary agriculture to the course of study for elementary schools. Ch. 127, Feb. 27, 1917.

Montana: See also A (c2), County officers.

Nebraska: See N (a), High schools; O (a), Industrial education, general.

Nevada: See N (a), High schools.

New Jersey: Authorizing the teaching of agriculture upon any land owned by the State and the utilizing of the labor of inmates of any charitable or correctional institution in connection with said work.

Ch. 360, Apr. 21, 1915.

New York: See L (i), Manual and industrial education; U (e), Schools for dependents and delinquents.

North Carolina: Providing for the teaching of agriculture, manual training and home economics in the public schools.

Governor to appoint a commission of not fewer than three persons to prepare courses of study in agriculture, manual training, and home economics, and State board of education shall cause the same to be printed for use in all the public schools, elementary, and high schools. Cities and towns of over 2,0 population are exempted, but commission must prepare courses in home gardening, school gardening, manual training, and home economics suited to the needs of the schools of such cities and towns. Each and every school shall teach agriculture, manual training, and home economics as herein provided, unless exempted. Ch. 190, Mar. 5, 1917.

Ohio: Amending sec. 7761-1 of the General Code, and repealing secs. 7761-2, 7761-3, 7761-4, 7761-5, and 7761-6 of the General Code, relating to the teaching of agriculture in public schools.

Provides that agriculture shall be taught in the common schools of village and rural districts, and may be taught in city school districts at the option of the board of education; such instruction in each county district to be under supervision of county superintendent. Repealed sections provided for the division of the State into four agricultural districts and for the appointment of a supervisor of agriculture for each such district.

H. B. No. 87, p. 111, Apr. 2, 1915.

Ohio: See also M (e), University extension, public lectures.

South Carolina: An act to provide for teaching agriculture in the public schools.

Appropriates $5,000 annually to be expended in consolidated schools doing practical classroom and field work in agriculture. Whenever the trustees of three or more school districts shall raise not less than $750 to be expended by county board of education for teaching agriculture within their limits, such group of districts shall be entitled to $750 from the State, such funds to be used for the payment of a teacher of agriculture. Such teacher shall have prescribed qualifications and shall reside 12 months of the year in the territory where he serves; he shall be employed for at least 3 years jointly by the several district boards, the county board of education, and the State superintendent. "Any public school cooperating in this work shall have an enrollment of at least 75 pupils with a regular attendance of at least 40 pupils, 3 teachers of the usual public school subjects, a term of 7 months, a local tax of 8 mills, a comfortable and sanitary building of at least 3 rooms, a school site of not less than 2 acres, the minimum equipment prescribed by the State board of education, and shall use the textbooks and course of study regularly required of other public schools. Agricultural instruction may be adapted to community needs, but must have approval of State board of education. Any school receiving State aid under this act shall enroll any pupil over 14 years of age who is qualified to take the course." Act No. 503, Mar. 27, 1916.

South Carolina: Providing for the teaching of agriculture in the public schools of the State, and placing the same under the supervision of the State.

No. 187 (c), Feb. 27, 1917.

South Carolina: See also N (a), High schools.

South Dakota: Amending sec. 1, ch. 190, Acts of 1913, relating to the purchase of agricultural lands by certain school corporations.

Authorizes school corporations to acquire school or endowment lands for the purpose of agricultural instruction. Ch. 165, Feb. 20, 1915.

Texas: See A (c1), County boards; L (a), Course of study.

Vermont: Appropriating $500 annually to the committee of management of the State boys' and girls' agricultural and industrial exposition.
Act No. 265, Mar. 31, 1915.

Vermont: See also B (e), State aid for elementary education; N (a), High schools; O (b), Agricultural schools.

West Virginia: See E (b), Teachers' certificates, general; M (e), University extension, public lectures.

Wisconsin: See O (b), Agricultural schools.

L (k). Days of Special Observance.

See also H (d), School holidays.

Alabama: Requesting the governor to designate October 9 as Fire-prevention Day to be observed in the public schools.
H. J. R. 263, p. 882, Sept. 25, 1915.

California: Designating March 7, birthday of Luther Burbank, as Conservation, Bird and Arbor Day. Ch. 471, May 22, 1915.

Connecticut: See I (d), Fire drills.

Kansas: Providing for the observance of Frances Willard Day in the public schools. Ch. 305, Mar. 8, 1915.

Massachusetts: Establishing Arbor and Bird Day.

Governor to issue proclamation setting apart last Saturday in April for such purpose. To recommend that Friday preceding be observed in rural and suburban schools. Ch. 74, Mar. 15, 1917.

Missouri: Designating the first Monday in October as Missouri Day and providing for the observance of the same in the public schools.
H. B. 112, p. 301, Mar. 22, 1915.

Missouri: Establishing and designating Frances Willard Day in the public schools.

September 29, designated for instruction and exercises relative to the benefits of prohibition. H. B. 123, p. 499, Apr. 12, 1917.

Missouri: Adding sec. 10801a to Revised Statutes, 1909, providing for the observance of Bird Day (Mar. 21) in the public schools.
H. B. 684, p. 502, Apr. 9, 1917.

New York: Amending the education law in relation to Arbor Day.

Commissioner of education to designate annually the day to be observed as Arbor Day. Ch. 220, Apr. 17, 1916.

North Carolina: Appointing Friday following the first day of November as Arbor Day to be observed in the public schools. Ch. 51, Feb. 25, 1915.

North Dakota: Designating the third Friday in January as Temperance Day to be observed by the people of the State.
S. B. 7, p. 177 Pop. Ed., Feb. 19, 1917.

Oregon: Amending sec. 4135, Lord's Oregon Laws, relating to Arbor Day.

The second Friday in April in counties east of the Cascade Mountains and the second Friday in February in counties west of said mountains are set apart as Arbor Day. Ch. 81, Feb. 10, 1917.

Oregon: Designating Frances E. Willard Day in the public schools.
Ch. 68, Feb. 9, 1917.

Oregon: See also H (d), School holidays.

Pennsylvania: Providing that Arbor Day shall also be observed as Bird Day in the public schools. Act No. 275, May 28, 1917.

South Dakota: Designating Frances Willard Day and providing for its observance in the public schools. Ch. 228, Feb. 21. 1917.

Tennessee: See L (d), Physiology and hygiene.

L (l). Other Special Subjects.

New Jersey: Authorizing the maintenance of savings accounts of public school pupils.

Authorizes superintendent, principal, or properly designated person to receive such savings and deposit them in banks; such accounts to be in name of pupil if sufficiently large, otherwise to be in name of said superintendent, principal or designated person in trust. Ch. 13, Feb. 28, 1916.

New York: Amending the banking law relating to the collection of savings by philanthropic agencies.

Authorizes head of any incorporated philanthropic agency (as well as school authorities) to collect small amounts of savings from children or persons under the direction or guidance of such philanthropic agency, if authorized to do so by certificate of the superintendent of health. Ch. 90, Mar. 20, 1916.

Ohio: Providing for a system of school savings banks.
H. B. No. 29, p. 597, Mar. 31, 1917.

L (m). Sectarian Instruction; Bible in the Schools.

New Jersey: Providing for the reading of the Holy Bible in the public schools of New Jersey.

Requires reading of at least five verses from Old Testament at opening of school each day. Ch. 263, Mar. 24, 1916.

Tennessee: Regulating the reading of the Holy Bible in the public schools.
Every teacher shall read or cause to be read without comment, at the opening of school each school day, at least 10 verses of the Bible; the same chapter shall not be read more than twice in the same session; penalty for failure or refusal, dismissal of teacher. Ch. 102, May 17, 1915.

L (n). Modern Languages.

New Mexico: Providing for teaching the Spanish language in the public schools.

Such language shall be taught in any public elementary or high school when directed by majority vote of district school board. Time devoted to such subject shall be determined by State board of education; said board shall prepare a course of study. Ch. 88, Mar. 18, 1915.

New Mexico: Providing for the teaching of English and Spanish by a bilingual method.

When a majority of the patrons of a public school shall petition in writing to county superintendent, it shall be the duty of teacher to teach reading in Spanish and English to pupils of first, second and third grades. This provision not to apply where it is impossible to secure services of a teacher having knowledge of Spanish and English. Ch. 14, Mar. 3, 1917.

M. SPECIAL TYPES OF SCHOOL.

(a) General.

North Carolina: An act to procure the location in North Carolina, at the rmer home of John Paul Jones, of the Patriot's Memorial School, to be erected the National Society of the Daughters of the American Revolution.

Appropriates $3,500 for such school on condition that the same be located in orth Carolina. Ch. 195, Mar. 9, 1915.

M (b). Kindergartens.

California: Amending sec. 1617c of the Political Code, relating to kinder- rtens.

Amends act requiring the establishment of a kindergarten on petition of the rents or guardians of 25 or more children between 4½ and 6 years of age siding within one mile of the school. After first year number of kinder- rtens shall be determined by school board. Amount of tax levy shall not ex- ed 10 cents on the $100. Ch. 463, May 22, 1915.

Connecticut: Amending sec. 2131 of the General Statutes, relating to kin- ergartens.

Raises from 3 to 4 the minimum kindergarten age.
Ch. 169, Apr. 28, 1915.

Illinois: See M (d), Vacation schools, playgrounds, etc.

Louisiana: See A (a), Administration and supervision, general.

Maine: Amending sec. 30, ch. 16, Revised Statutes of 1916, so as to provide or kindergartens as part of the common school course.

School board of any city or town may, and on petition of parents or guar- lians of 30 or more children between 4 and 6 years of age residing within one ile of an elementary school, shall, unless otherwise instructed by town or ity, maintain a kindergarten or kindergartens as part of the common-school ourse, and children over 4 years of age may attend; unless attendance of 15 r more is maintained, school board may discontinue kindergarten; teacher ust have completed at least a two-year course in kindergarten training and eceived a certificate or diploma from a kindergarten training school ap- roved by State superintendent of public schools.
Ch. 134, Mar. 29, 1917.

Michigan: See E (c), Teachers' certificates, special.

Nevada: Providing for the establishment, equipment, and maintenance of kindergarten departments in the public schools.

School board of any district may, upon petition of parents or guardians of 25 or more children between ages of 4 and 6 years residing in the district, establish and maintain a kindergarten or kindergartens. A district tax of not exceeding 25 cents on $100 of taxable property may be levied for support. If average daily attendance in kindergarten is 10 or less for the school year, kindergarten shall be discontinued. Ch. 110, Mar. 13, 1915.

North Carolina: Providing for the establishment of kindergartens as a part of the common-school system.

Upon petition of the school board of any district, county commissioners shall order an election in such district to determine the question of establishing a kindergarten therein; majority vote determines. Tax of not exceeding 15 cents on the $100 and 45 cents on each poll may be levied. Such kindergarten to be for children under 6 years old. No teacher shall be employed in a kindergarten who has not taken at least a two years' course in kindergarten training and received a diploma from a normal training school approved by the State board of examiners, but said examiners may accept equivalent of such training and may make rules and regulations governing the examination, qualifications and admission of kindergarten teachers. No kindergarten teacher shall be allowed to teach a kindergarten department larger than would result from an enrollment of 20 pupils. Ch. 234, Mar. 9, 1915

North Dakota: Amending sec. 1402, Compiled Laws of 1913, relating to the establishment of free kindergartens.

District school board shall, on petition of a majority of the legal voters of such district, establish free kindergartens in connection with public schools in cities of over 5,000 inhabitants, board shall establish kindergartens upon petition of one-fifth of legal voters. (Old law was not mandatory on boards.) Ch. 129, Mar. 11, 1915

Oregon: Providing for the establishment of kindergartens in city schools having more than 20,000 school children and prescribing the qualifications of teachers therein. Ch. 25, Jan. 30, 1917

Tennessee: Authorizing cities and towns maintaining free public schools to establish and maintain kindergartens. Ch. 25, Mar. 8, 1917

Texas: Authorizing the establishment of kindergartens.

The trustees of any school district, on petition of 25 or more parents or guardians of children under school age and over 5 years of age, shall establish and maintain a kindergarten. Said kindergarten to be maintained by district school tax. Ch. 122, Mar. 29, 1917

Utah: Appropriating $4,000 for the fiscal years 1915 and 1916 for the benefit of the Salt Lake Free Kindergarten and Neighborhood House Association. Ch. 22, Mar. 10, 1915

Utah: Making an appropriation for the benefit of the Salt Lake free kindergartens and Neighborhood House Association. Ch. 19, Feb. 23, 1917

Vermont: See A (a), Administration and supervision, general.

Washington: Relating to free kindergartens and amending sec. 4740, Remington and Ballinger's Annotated Codes and Statutes.

Maintenance of kindergartens shall be paid from general school fund of district. Attendance at kindergartens to be reported. For attendance of kindergarten children over 5 years of age, school funds shall be apportioned as for regular schools except that only one-half credit shall be allowed for kindergarten attendance. Kindergarten to be open to all children of district of proper age. District clerk to include children over 4 years of age in enumeration. Ch. 127, Mar. 14, 1917

West Virginia: See E (b), Teachers' certificates, general.

M (c). Evening Schools.

Alaska: Providing for the establishment and organization of citizenship night schools, designating courses of instruction and making provision for the payment of expenses. Ch. 33, May 3, 1917

California: Amending sec. 1662 of the Political Code, relating to elementary schools and kindergartens, school age, kindergarten age, deaf children, exclusion of children, and special classes of the elementary school.

Authorizes the governing body of any elementary school district to establish special day classes, as well as evening schools, for persons over 14 years of age and for adults. Ch. 528, May 18, 1917

Colorado: See A (d), District boards and officers.

Connecticut: Amending an act concerning the payment of public money for evening schools.

Provides State aid of $2.25 per pupil in average attendance for first 75 evenings. (Was same amount for each pupil in attendance during entire term.) Ch. 83, Mar. 31, 1915

Connecticut: See also O (c), Trade schools.

Iowa: Providing for evening schools for adult and other persons.

School board of any organized district may establish, under supervision of ty or county superintendent, evening schools for persons over 16 years of age. aid board shall establish such school whenever 10 or more persons over 16 hall desire instruction therein in the common branches; school to be main- ined not less than three months. Ch. 97, Mar. 31, 1917.

Louisiana: See A (a), Administration and supervision, general.

Maine: Amending sec. 6, ch. 188, Public Laws of 1911, relating to industrial ourses in evening schools.

Substitutes for "free hand or mechanical drawing, domestic science or man- al training, or the elements of the trades" the following: "The commercial ranches, the domestic and manual arts, or the elements of the trades." Pro- ides that such courses must have approval of State superintendent and that o town shall receive State aid for such courses "unless the total average ttendance in said courses shall be equal to not less than 25 per cent of the verage attendance of the school." Ch. 90, Mar. 15, 1915.

Massachusetts: See O (c), Trade schools.

Minnesota: Authorizing the establishment of evening schools for persons ver 16 years of age. Ch. 356, Apr. 19, 1917.

Minnesota: Amending sec. 1415, Revised Laws of 1905, as last amended by h. 265, Acts of 1915, relating to the levy of additional taxes for school pur- oses in school districts having 50,000 inhabitants or more.

Permits levy of four-tenths of 1 mill on the dollar for the maintenance of vening and summer schools for elementary and high school grades. Ch. 372, Apr. 20, 1917.

Nebraska: See O (a), Industrial education, general.

Nevada: Providing for the establishment of evening schools.

On petition of 15 or more bona fide applicants thereof, State superintendent hall authorize any school district to establish and maintain an evening school. Ch. 191, Mar. 24, 1917.

New Jersey: Amending an act entitled "An act to establish a thorough and fficient system of free public schools," etc., approved October 19, 1903.

In order to receive State aid evening school must be maintained at least 64 venings of 2 hours each, and at least 3 evenings in a week. Ch. 278, Mar. 29, 1916.

New Jersey: Amending sec. 182 of "An act to establish a thorough and effi- ient system of public schools," etc., approved October 19, 1903.

Provides for apportionment of school funds to districts. Apportionment for teachers in evening schools must be only for schools kept open at least 64 evenings in the school year. There is provided $315 for each permanent teacher in a high school or high-school department or intermediate school associated therewith; such schools must together have a full six years of primary and grammar school course and must have approval of State board of education. Ch. 112, Mar. 24, 1917.

New Jersey: Providing for the proportionate payment of funds for evening schools for foreign-born residents when the amount legally applied for exceeds State appropriation for such school and the amount certified for such schools by the commissioner of education. Ch. 267, Mar. 31, 1917.

New Mexico: Providing for evening schools for illiterates.

School directors of any district where there are 10 or more illiterate or semi-illiterate persons may engage their teacher to give such persons instruction in evening schools. Additional pay allowed to teacher: $5 per month for first 10 pupils and $5 for any number over and above first 10 pupils. Ch. 88, Mar. 13, 1917.

North Dakota: Providing for evening schools, where necessary, for adults and other persons, and appropriating money therefor.
H. B. 81, p. 100 Pop. Ed., Mar. 10, 1917.

South Carolina: Amending sec. 1778 of the Civil Code so as to permit persons over 21 years of age to attend public night schools. No. 24, Feb. 13, 1917.

Tennessee: Empowering city and county boards of education to use the public-school funds for the maintenance of night schools in which persons may be enrolled who are 15 years of age or over. Ch. 29, Mar. 14, 1917.

Vermont: See A (a), Administration and supervision, general.

Washington: Amending sec. 4481, Remington and Ballinger's Annotated Codes and Statutes, relating to the powers and duties of school boards.

Authorizes boards of school directors to establish and maintain night schools.
Ch. 44, Mar. 8, 1915.

West Virginia: Amending ch. 45, Code of West Virginia, by enacting as additional thereto and part thereof a section to be numbered 78a, authorizing boards of education to establish and maintain night schools for the education of certain persons.

Such schools may be established for all persons, including persons of foreign birth, excepting children required by law to attend day school.
Ch. 74, Mar. 3, 1917.

Wisconsin: See H (f), Compulsory attendance; O (a), Industrial education, general.

M (d). Vacation Schools; Playgrounds; Social Centers.

California: Amending sec. 1619 of the Political Code.

Authorizes the establishment of vacation schools. Ch. 462, May 22, 1915.

Colorado: See A (d), District boards and officers.

Connecticut: Relating to the use of school rooms and buildings for public purposes.

Authorizes school boards to permit the use of schoolhouses "for public or educational purposes or for the purpose of holding political discussions therein at such time when the school is not in session and subject to such restrictions as the authority having control of such room or building may consider expedient." Ch. 168, Apr. 28, 1915.

Connecticut: Authorizing towns and districts to erect, equip, and maintain gymnasiums, baths, and recreation grounds.

School committee to determine buildings and equipment.
Ch. 48, Mar. 27, 1917.

Idaho: See C (c), Local taxation.

Illinois: Amending sec. 115 of "An act to establish and maintain a system of free schools," approved June 12, 1909.

Extends the provision allowing the use of schoolhouses for community purposes by providing that school directors may furnish heat, light, and attendants. Authorizes school directors to establish kindergartens without being directed by qualified voters. S. B. 221, p. 642, June 25, 1915.

Illinois: Providing for the acquisition, equipment, conduct, and maintenance of public playgrounds in and by cities having a population of less than 150,000.

On petition of at least 2 per cent of voters of such city, question of establishing playgrounds shall be submitted to an election and majority vote shall determine the question. Playgrounds shall be under control of a playground board of three members, who may employ a director. A tax of not exceeding 2 mills on the dollar may be levied for maintenance.
H. B. 68, p. 312, June 24, 1915.

Illinois: Authorizing school districts to acquire real estate by gift, donation, r devise for the purpose of establishing, maintaining, and operating play-rounds, recreation grounds, and athletic fields and to provide for the policing hereof. H. B. 425, p. 745, June 25, 1917.

Indiana: Providing for the use for park purposes of real estate owned by chool corporations in cities of the fifth class, which real estate has been bandoned for school purposes, and fixing conditions and restrictions under hich such real estate may be used for park purposes, and giving cities of he fifth class authority to accept and use and maintain public parks upon uch real estate. Ch. 158, Mar. 10, 1915.

Iowa: Empowering cities having 20,000 population or more to purchase or ase land outside such cities for school-garden or school-farm purposes; au-horizing such cities to maintain thereon summer homes for pupils desiring to ursue agricultural and industrial studies in vaction time.
School laws, 1915, p. 142.

Iowa: Authorizing cities to establish community center districts, providing or the establishment and erection therein of community center houses with ecreation grounds adjacent and for the maintenance thereof, and providing or submission to the voters of the district the question of bond issues for the stablishment of such improvements.

Applies to cities of 50,000 population or more. Authorizes city council to rovide for several districts in the city. On petition of 15 per cent of free-olders of any section, council may (or may not) order an election in such ection to determine the question of establishing a community center; majority ote decides. Bonds of the community center district may be voted. Council o appoint three residents of the district as a managing board. Such center nay be established in connection with a public school. Ch. 51, Mar. 19, 1917.

Iowa: Amending sec. 879v, Supplemental Supplement to the Code, 1915, relat-ng to juvenile playgrounds.

Strikes out word "women" and insects in lieu thereof "suitable person," so hat superintendent of playgrounds may be either man or woman.
Ch. 181, Apr. 9, 1917.

Iowa: Authorizing school boards to permit the use of the schoolhouses and rounds for other than school purposes.

May permit such use for meetings of granges, lodges, agricultural societies, nd similar rural organizations and for election purposes. Board to fix terms. ompensation to be turned into contingent fund. Annual meeting may vote o discontinue such use. Ch. 229, Apr. 12, 1917.

Iowa: See also D (a), Buildings and sites, general.

Kansas: Authorizing boards of education in cities of the first class to purchase or lease grounds and use public-school buildings and grounds and other public buildings and grounds for public recreation and playground purposes and to levy a tax for such purposes.

In addition to other taxes a tax of one-fourth mill on the dollar may be levied. Ch. 309, Mar. 13, 1915.

Kansas: Creating a city board of public welfare for the supervision and regulation of theaters, public dance halls, and other places of amusement or recreation. Ch. 268, Mar. 23, 1915.

Kansas: Authorizing the use of public-school buildings and grounds for recreation and playground purposes and to levy tax therefor.
Ch. 274, Mar. 9, 1917.

Louisiana: See A (a), Administration and supervision, general.

Maine: Authorizing village corporations chartered by the legislature to and hold lands by devise or gift for playground or park purposes.
Ch. 247, Mar. 31, 19

Maryland: Authorizing the mayor and council of the city of Balti use public school buildings and other public property belonging to the city any public purpose which will not materially interfere with the use of property for the purpose for which it was primarily designed.
Ch. 231, Apr. 18, 19

Maryland: See also A (a), Administration and supervision, general.

Massachusetts: Amending sec. 19, ch. 28, of the Revised Laws, as amen by sec. 1, ch. 508, Acts of 1910, relating to the powers of cities and tow respect to playgrounds and physical education.

Authorizes the construction on playgrounds or other suitable land ow by city or town of buildings for play, sport and physical education and town meetings and other public. social or educational purposes, but such pu social and educational uses shall not interfere with the use of building gymnasium. Ch. 25, Feb. 25, 19

Michigan: Authorizing cities, villages, counties, townships, and school tricts to operate systems of public recreation and playgrounds.
Act No. 156. May 2, 19

Michigan: Authorizing school boards to permit the use of school gro and schoolhouses as community or recreation centers.
Act No. 318, May 10, 19

Minnesota: Relating to the government of cities of the first class and au izing the levy of taxes for playground purposes.

Authorizes a tax of not exceeding 1/8 of one mill for playground purp
Ch. 230, Apr. 21, 19

Minnesota: Authorizing the school board of any independent district in city of the first class, operating under art. 4, sec. 36, of the State constitu to establish and supervise for children and adults in school buildings and school grounds, or in such buildings or grounds as may be placed under custody and management of any such school board, vacation schools, rea rooms, library stations. debating clubs, gymnasia, playgrounds, and sim activities, including social centers.

School board may levy for such purposes a tax not exceeding three-tenths 1 mill on the dollar. Ch. 166, Apr. 9, 191

Minnesota: Authorizing cities having a population of more than 50,0 issue and sell bonds for improving and acquiring parks and playgrounds.
Ch. 219, Apr. 14, 191

Minnesota: Amending paragraph 3, sec. 2747, General Statutes, 1913, rel ing to the powers and duties of school boards.

Changes from mandatory to permissive the provision in the law provi for charges for the use of school houses for divine worship, Sunday schools, et
Ch. 417, Apr. 20, 191

Minnesota: See also M (c), Evening schools.

Missouri: Authorizing school boards of districts having less than 75 population to allow the free use of school property for social, civic and co munity purposes.

When such use will not interfere with prime purpose of-property, board m allow such use and may provide heat. light and janitor service; voters b majority vote may prohibit such use. H. R. 892, p. 382, Mar. 15, 1915

Nebraska: Empowering boards of education in incorporated cities and vi lages and a majority of the electors in rural school districts at their annu meeting to permit the use of school buildings for neighborhood meetings.
Ch. 286, Apr. 17, 1915

New Hampshire: Empowering cities and towns to provide playgrounds and eighborhood centers. Ch. 86, Mar. 20, 1917.

New Jersey: An act to authorize any city of this State to acquire lands by urchase or condemnation, and erect on such lands or on other lands owned by uch city a public building or buildings for use as a museum of arts and ciences, or suitable for public exhibitions, lectures, addresses or assemblages, r for any or all of such purposes and uses, and to furnish the same, and to ssue bonds to provide for the expense of such acquisition, erection and furishing, and to provide by tax for the payment of the principal and interest of aid bonds. Ch. 367, Apr. 21, 1915.

New Jersey: Changing the title of the board of playground commissioners f a municipality to "board of recreation commissioners." Ch. 231, Apr. 8, 1915.

New Jersey: An act to authorize the use of parks, playgrounds, or other public places as playgrounds for pupils in public schools and for the public generally in cities and towns. Ch. 59, Mar. 15, 1916.

New Jersey: Authorizing boards of education to permit the use of school property for athletic, social, civic and recreational meetings and entertainments and for such other purposes as may be approved by said boards. Ch. 227, Mar. 20, 1916.

New Jersey: Amending ch. 309, Acts of 1913, relating to the use of schoolhouses for community purposes.

Provides that the school board shall [was "may"] permit the use of school property for community purposes, subject to rules of such board or on notification by State commissioner of education. Ch. 35, Mar. 15, 1917.

New York: Amending the education law, relative to the wider use of school buildings.

On petition of at least 25 citizens of the district or city, the trustees or board of education shall organize and conduct community centers and civic forums in their respective districts or cities and shall provide funds for the support thereof. Ch. 214, Apr. 19, 1917.

New York: Authorizing cities of the second and third classes and villages to establish and maintain playgrounds and neighborhood recreation centers. Ch. 215, Apr. 19, 1917.

North Carolina: Providing for the improvement of the social and educational conditions in rural communities.

Duty of State superintendent to provide for a series of rural entertainments varying in character and cost and consisting of moving pictures; to be given in rural schoolhouses. Cost to be borne one-third by the State and two-thirds by the county board of education or the rural school community. State appropriation of $25,000 per annum. Ch. 186, Mar. 6, 1917.

Ohio: Repealing secs. 2457-1 and 2457-2 of the General Code and supplementing sec. 7622 by secs. 7622-1 to 7622-7 inclusive, providing for the use of school buildings and other public buildings and grounds for educational and recreational purposes.

Upon application of any responsible organization, or of a group of at least seven citizens, all school grounds and schoolhouses, as well as all other buildings maintained by taxation shall be available for use as social centers and for the discussion of public questions. Officials in control shall make rules and regulations governing such use. Organization or group of citizens shall be responsible for damage to property and shall, if required, pay expense of light, heat, and janitor service. School board of any district may permit the use of school

property for any of following purposes: (1) Instruction; (2) educational, civic, social or recreational meetings; (3) public library service; (4) as polling place.
H. B. No. 549, p. 552, June 4, 1915.

Ohio: Amending sec. 7622-3 of the General Code, relative to the use of schoolhouses by the general public for meeting purposes.

School board shall allow the use of schoolhouse on request and on payment of janitor fees; such use to be under rules of board.
H. B. N. 252, p. 607, Mar. 31, 1917.

Ohio: Supplementing sec. 7622-1 of the General Code by the enactment of supplemental sec. 7622-1a, providing for a more complete use of school grounds as a place for holding public meeting.

On application of a committee representing any candidate for public office or recognized political party, school board shall permit the use of school grounds for meetings for political discussions, but not during regular school hours.
H. B. No. 253, p. 449, Mar. 30, 1917.

Oklahoma: Giving boards of education in independent school districts and cities of the first class of 10,000 population or over authority to use school buildings and grounds and other buildings and grounds for public recreation and playground purposes, and authorizing said boards to appropriate money for said purposes, and providing for the levy of a separate tax for the support of the same.

Said boards are required to submit to qualified electors the question of making such provision when petitioned by 15 per cent of such electors, and a majority vote of said electors shall determine the question. A tax of one-half mill on the dollar is authorized by this act. Ch. 35, Feb. 22, 1915.

Oklahoma: Amending secs. 1 and 6, ch. 35, session laws of 1915, relating to the use of school buildings and grounds for public recreation and playgrounds.

Strikes out limitation of act to cities of 10,000 population or over. In cities of over 5,000 (amended act, 10,000) the council or commissioners may appropriate funds for such purpose. Ch. 242, Mar. 23, 1917.

Oregon: Providing for the free use of all public schoolhouses and property and establishing a civic center at each and every public schoolhouse in the State, and providing for the maintenance, conduct and management of the same.

School board may allow such use. Light, heat, and janitor service and the services of a special supervisor of community use of schoolhouse may be provided out of district school funds. Ch. 86, Feb. 15, 1915.

Rhode Island: Authorizing the city of Providence to condemn for public park and playground purposes certain parcels of land in said city.
Ch. 1279, Apr. 23, 1915.

Rhode Island: Authorizing the school committee of the city of Providence to permit the use of public school properties for community purposes at such times as will not interfere with their use for public school purposes.
Ch. 1414, Apr. 14, 1916.

Rhode Island: Authorizing the city of Providence to borrow not exceeding $100,000 for park and playground purposes. Ch. 1553, Apr. 12, 1917.

South Dakota: Authorizing school districts to incur expense for civic meetings. Ch. 223, Feb. 10, 1917.

Texas: Providing for the use of public buildings, including schoolhouses, for holding elections. Ch. 149, Mar. 30, 1917.

Utah: Providing for the free use of all schoolhouses and property; establishing a civic center at each and every public schoolhouse in the State, and providing for the maintenance, conduct, and management of the same.

People of district may use schoolhouse for civic, social and recreational purposes. Heat, light, janitor service and the services of a special supervisor of such activities may be provided out of the county or special school funds. But it is not mandatory on the school board to allow such use of the schoolhouses.
Ch. 122, Mar. 17, 1917.

Wisconsin: Amending subsec. 1, sec. 435e, of the Statutes, relating to the authority of the board of school directors in cities of the first, second and third classes to establish and maintain evening schools, vacation schools, gymnasiums, and other similar activities.

Authorizes said directors to furnish equipment for public educational and recreational activities carried on in buildings and upon grounds in the custody and under the management of commissioners or boards having charge of public parks, libraries, museums, or public buildings of whatever sort.
Ch. 204, June 10, 1915.

Wisconsin: Creating sec. 926–11m of the Statutes, relating to the use of lands purchased by cities.

Lands acquired for a city market and unused for such purpose may be used for playgrounds. Ch. 165, May 27, 1915.

M (e). University and School Extension; Public Lectures.

Alabama: Providing for extension work in agriculture and home economics by giving instruction to men, women, and young people, by continuing and improving farm demonstration work, by organizing marketing clubs, by organizing and supervising boys' corn and pig clubs, girls' canning clubs, women's clubs in home economics, and by conducting extension work through other means.

Appropriates $20,000 for year ending June 30, 1918, and $40,000 for year ending June 30, 1919. These sums to be expended under general direction of trustees of Alabama Polytechnic Institute.
Act No. 566, p. 624, Sept. 25, 1915.

Alabama: Assenting to the provisions of an act of Congress, approved by the President, May 8, 1914, entitled "An act to provide for cooperative agricultural extension work between the agricultural colleges in the several States receiving the benefits of the act of Congress approved July 2, 1862, and acts supplementary thereto, and the United States Department of Agriculture." (Smith-Lever Act.)

Designates trustees of the Alabama Polytechnic Institute to receive Federal grants of money. S. J. R. 47, p. 49, Jan. 29, 1915.

Arizona: Accepting the provisions of the Smith-Lever Act providing Federal aid for agricultural extension work.

Appropriates amount necessary to equal amount received from Federal Government. Ch. 25, Mar. 9, 1915.

Arkansas: See P (c), State universities and colleges.

California: Accepting the provisions of the Smith-Lever Act of Congress.

Directs State university to receive Federal aid and to conduct agricultural extension work. Appropriates $31,275 out of amount appropriated for College of Agriculture. Ch. 244, May 17, 1915.

California: Assenting to the provisions of the Smith-Lever Act of Congress.
S. J. R. 13, May 7, 1915.

California: Authorizing county boards of supervisors to appropriate and use county funds for the support and maintenance of agricultural extension work in connection with the United States Department of Agriculture and the University of California. Ch. 873, May 18, 1915.

California: Appropriating the sum of $40,000 for the support and maintenance of university extension work by the University of California.
Ch. 308, May 17, 1915

California: See also F (a), Teachers' contracts, duties, etc.

Colorado: Accepting the terms of the Smith-Lever Act of Congress.
Ch. 3, Apr. 9, 1915

Connecticut: Providing for granting funds received under the Smith-Le Act of Congress to agricultural organizations approved by the trustees of State Agricultural College, and authorizing municipalities to appropriate fu to such organizations. Ch. 335, May 20, 1915

Delaware: Accepting the provisions of the Smith-Lever Act of Congress

Appropriates for agricultural extension at Delaware College $1,281 for and $2,347 for 1916. Ch. 189, Mar. 15, 1915

Florida: Accepting the provisions of the Smith-Lever Act of Congress, designating the University of Florida to receive Federal grants of money, and making an appropriation for the support of cooperative agricultural work.
Ch. 6839 (No. 33), May 25, 1915

Illinois: Accepting the provisions of the Smith-Lever Act of Congress.

Authorizes the University of Illinois to receive grants of money and to conduct agricultural extension work in connection with the College of Agriculture.
H. J. R. 3, p. 732, Mar. 4, 1915

Indiana: Accepting the provisions of the Smith-Lever Act of Congress providing Federal aid for extension work in agriculture and home economics.

Purdue University is designated as the institution to receive such aid.
Ch. 193, Mar. 8, 1915

Kansas: Accepting the provisions of the Smith-Lever Act of Congress, providing for extension work in agriculture and home economics.

Designates the State Agricultural College to receive Federal funds.
Ch. 47, Mar. 24, 1915

Kansas: Accepting the provisions of the Smith-Lever Act of Congress and designating the State Agricultural College to receive Federal funds appropriated under such act. Ch. 377, Mar. 1, 1915

Kansas: Providing for State and county appropriations for the support of county farm bureaus.

Whenever there shall be organized in any county a county farm bureau having a membership of 25 per cent, or as many as 250, of the farmers of the county, and having for its purpose the giving of instruction in agriculture and home economics, the State Agricultural College shall contribute not less than $800 nor more than $1,600 toward the salary of an agricultural agent to do demonstration work. Ch. 166, Mar. 12, 1915

Massachusetts: Establishing a department of university extension and providing for correspondence courses of education.

Said department to be under the direction and control of the State board of education which, with approval of governor and council, shall appoint a head of the same. Said department may cooperate with existing institutions of learning in the establishment and conduct of university extension and correspondence courses; may supervise administration of extension and correspondence courses which are supported in whole or in part by State revenue; may establish and conduct extension and correspondence courses for the benefit of residents of the State; but neither the department nor the board of education shall have control of agricultural extension work and correspondence courses of the State agricultural college. Subject to board of education, department may employ necessary agents, lecturers, instructors, etc. It may, with consent of officials or boards in control, use public buildings and grounds for extension work and correspondence courses, and city and town officials and committees may allow use of buildings and grounds for such purposes, but not nterfere with public school work; it may also arrange for the use of other ssary buildings, grounds, and facilities. Said department may appoint a e advisory council and local councils, whose functions shall be defined by d of education. Board of education shall report annually to legislature work of the department. Said department may grant certificates of proncy to students completing courses. The sum of $25,000 is appropriated 1915. Ch. 294, May 28, 1915.

Michigan: Accepting the provisions of the Smith-Lever Act of Congress, viding for cooperative agricutlural extension work between State agricul-al colleges and the United States Department of Agriculture. Act. No. 65, Apr. 21, 1915.

Minnesota: Accepting the provisions of the Smith-Lever Act of Congress d designating the University of Minnesota to receive Federal grants of money. Ch. 378, Apr. 17, 1915.

Missouri: Accepting the provisions of the Smith-Lever Act of Congress and signating the curators of the University of Missouri to receive Federal ant and conduct extension work in connection with the Agricultural College. S. C. R. 1, p. 411, Mar. 15, 1915.

Montana: Accepting the provisions of the Smith-Lever Act of Congress and signating the State Agricultural College to receive and expend Federal grant money. Ch. 19, Feb. 18, 1915.

Nebraska: Accepting the provisions of the Smith-Lever Act of Congress and esignating the regents of the University of Nebraska to receive grants of ederal moneys. Ch. 231, Apr. 5, 1915.

Nevada: Accepting the provisions of the Smith-Lever Act of Congress and esignating the regents of the University of Nevada to receive Federal grants f money. Ch. 9, Feb. 10, 1915.

Nevada: See also P (c), State universities and colleges.

New Hampshire: Assenting to the provisions of the Smith-Lever Act of Congress and designating the trustees of the New Hampshire College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts to receive grants of Federal moneys. Ch. 194, Mar. 17, 1915.

New Mexico: Providing for the maintenance of cooperative agricultural extension work in accordance with the provisions of the Smith-Lever Act of Congress.[1]

Designates the State Agricultural College to be the beneficiary of said act. Makes appropriations to meet the conditions of the Smith-Lever Act. Ch. 29, Mar. 9, 1915.

North Carolina: Accepting the benefits of an act of Congress known as the Smith-Lever Act.

Designates the trustees of the State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts to receive and expend Federal funds. Res. No. 26, Mar. 5, 1915.

North Carolina: Making an appropriation for agricultural extension work in order to get the State's share in the Smith-Lever Act of Congress.

Designates the North Carolina College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts to receive and administer Federal funds received under said act. Ch. 87, Mar. 5, 1915.

North Dakota: Assenting to the provisions of the Smith-Lever Act of Congress and designating the trustees of the North Dakota Agricultural College to receive Federal grants of money. Concurrent Res. p. 106, Acts of 1915.

North Dakota: Appropriating funds to the department of agricultural extension of the North Dakota Agricultural College for the years 1915 and 1916.

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[1] Joint resolution No. 5 assents to the provisions of the Smith-Lever Act.

Appropriates funds to meet the conditions of the Smith-Lever Act of Congress. Ch. 5, Mar. 2, 1915

Ohio: Assenting to the provisions of the Smith-Lever Act of Congress and designating the trustees of the Ohio State University to receive Federal grants of money under such act. H. J. R. No. 5, p. 849, Feb. 11, 1915

Ohio: Amending secs. 9916, 9917, 9918, 9919, 9920, and 9921 of the General Code, relating to farmers' institutes, and supplementing said sec. 9921 by sections to be known as 9921-1, 9921-2, 9921-3, 9921-4, and 9921-5, creating the office of agricultural agent in each of the several counties.

Provides for county farmers' institutes. Added sections accept the provisions of the Smith-Lever Act of Congress and designate the trustees of the Ohio State University to expend the funds in the treasury to the credit of the agricultural extension fund. From State moneys appropriated for the employment of agricultural agents, not exceeding $3,000 in any one year shall be expended for any county that shall raise at least $1,000 for the support of an agricultural agent for one year and that shall give assurance that a like sum will be raised for a second year, or shall establish and maintain a county experiment farm; each county may expend not exceeding $1,500 annually for the support and expenses of such agent. If county commissioners shall fail to employ such agent, they may be directed so to do by vote of the people.
H. B. No. 251, p. 356, May 25, 1915

Oklahoma: Accepting the provisions of the Smith-Lever Act of Congress and designating the trustees of the State Agricultural and Mechanical College to receive Federal grants of money. Ch. 18, Feb. 10, 1915

Oregon: Assenting to the provisions of the Smith-Lever Act of Congress and designating the regents of Oregon Agricultural College to receive Federal grants of money. S. J. R. No. 20, Feb. 12, 1915

Pennsylvania: Assenting to the provisions of the Smith-Lever Act of Congress; designating the Pennsylvania State College to receive Federal grants of money. Act No. 12, Mar. 26, 1915

South Carolina: Assenting to the provisions of the Smith-Lever Act of Congress; designating the trustees of Clemson Agricultural and Mechanical College to receive Federal grants of money. Act No. 190, Feb. 12, 1915

South Dakota: Accepting the provisions of the Smith-Lever Act of Congress and designating the State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts to supervise agricultural work in the State. Ch. 11, Mar. 8, 1915

South Dakota: Accepting the provisions of the Smith-Lever Act of Congress directing that agricultural extension work be done in connection with the State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts. Ch. 238, Acts of 1915

Tennessee: Assenting to the provisions of the Smith-Lever Act of Congress designating the trustees of the University of Tennessee to receive Federal grants of money under said act. H. J. R. No. 6, p. 572, Jan. 29, 1915

Tennessee: To appropriate money for agricultural extension work in the several counties of the State, in order to meet the conditions imposed by the act of Congress known as the Smith-Lever Act. Ch. 164, May 17, 1915

Tennessee: Authorizing county courts to appropriate money for the purpose of cooperating with the State College of Agriculture in farmers' demonstration work. Ch. 148, May 17, 1915

Texas: Assenting to the provisions of the Smith-Lever Act of Congress; designating the directors of the State Agricultural and Mechanical College to receive Federal grants of money. H. C. R. No. 2, p. 273, Jan. 29, 1915

Utah: Assenting to the provisions of the Smith-Lever Act of Congress; designating the trustees of the Agricultural College of Utah to receive Federal grants of money. S. J. R. No. 7, p. 268, Mar. 6, 1915

Utah: Amending sec. 3, ch. 108, Acts of 1913, relating to the placing of farm and home demonstrators in the various counties of the State, and authorizing e county commissioners of the respective counties to make appropriations erefor.

Not exceeding $2,500 may be appropriated by any county for such purpose.
Ch. 10, Mar. 6, 1915.

Vermont: Accepting the provisions of the Smith-Lever Act of Congress; des- nating the trustees of the University of Vermont to receive Federal grants money.
No. 351 (J. Res.), Mar. 11, 1915.

Vermont: Appropriating $8,000 annually for agricultural extension work in operation with the U. S. Department of Agriculture.
Act No. 23, Mar. 31, 1915.

Washington: Assenting to the provisions of the Smith-Lever Act of Con- ess; designating the regents of the State College of Washington to receive d expend Federal moneys granted under said act. Ch. 125, Mar. 17, 1915.

Washington: See also C (b), Local bonds and indebtedness; G (b), State rmal schools.

West Virginia: Assenting to and accepting the provisions of the Smith-Lever ct of Congress.
S. J. R. No. 4, p. 598, Feb. 1, 1915.

West Virginia: Revising, amending, and reenacting sec. 28, ch. 39, Code of est Virginia, permitting county courts to aid county agricultural organiza- ons in the employment of county agricultural agents.
Ch. 89, Feb. 13, 1915.

Wyoming: Assenting to the terms and conditions of the Smith-Lever Act of ongress; appropriating certain moneys to the University of Wyoming for rrying out the provisions of the act and other forms of agricultural exten- on; empowering county commissioners to appropriate moneys for agricultural monstration field work, supplemented with State funds; authorizing two or ore counties to unite into districts to carry out the purpose of this act; thorizing the board of trustees of the university to receive moneys for car- ing out the act.
Ch. 25, Feb. 11, 1915.

M (f). Farmers' Institutes, etc.

Rhode Island: Providing for the organization of farm bureaus and for the nployment of county or district agricultural demonstrators on the county gent plan.
Ch. 1232, Apr. 23, 1915.

M (g). Private and Endowed Schools; Parochial Schools.

Alabama: Requiring private, denominational, and parochial schools to report the State superintendent of education. Act No. 221, p. 285, Aug. 16, 1915.

Massachusetts: See H (f), Compulsory attendance.

N. SECONDARY EDUCATION: HIGH SCHOOLS AND ACADEMIES.

(a) General.

Alabama: Authorizing cities and towns to convey real and personal prop- rty, to make appropriations from city or town funds, and to issue bonds to id in the location and construction of county high schools.
Act No. 105, p. 203, Apr. 5, 1915.

Alabama: Prohibiting county school board, county superintendent of educa- ion, school trustees, or teacher from excluding any pupil who is qualified to take any course of study which the teacher is qualified to teach, when the pupil lives more than 3 miles from a high school.

Act. No. 304, p. 323, Aug. 26, 1915.

Alaska: See A (f), Administrative units—districts, etc.

Arizona: Amending paragraph 2770, ch. 13, title 11, Revised Statutes of 1913, providing for the establishment and maintenance of high schools.

School district having average attendance of 200 or more or having property valuation of $1,500,000 or more may establish high school. Two or more districts jointly having such attendance and valuation may form union high school district, but territory already in a high-school district shall not be included, unless remaining territory of original district is contiguous and has $3,000,000 of property. On petition of majority of electors of any district State board of education may establish a high school therein.

Ch. 5, Feb. 21, 1915.

Arkansas: See L (j), Agriculture.

California: Adding two new sections to the Political Code.

Section 1750a provides for the establishment by high-school boards of "intermediate schools" for pupils who have completed the sixth grade. But such school may not be established in any county, union, or joint union high-school district unless the elementary schools within such high-school district show a total enrollment of 100 or more in the seventh and eighth grades, or unless a majority of the qualified electors voting shall vote therefor. Such intermediate school shall include seventh and eighth grades and may include high-school studies.

Section 1617d directs boards of common-school districts situated in such school districts to permit children of seventh and eighth grades to attend intermediate schools established therein. Such boards are also directed to pay the tuition of such pupils in the seventh and eighth grades.

Ch. 90, Apr. 23, 1915.

California: Adding a new section to the Political Code to be numbered [illegible], relating to the county high-school fund, and repealing secs. 1758 and 1759.

Provides for county tax sufficient to raise $60 per pupil of average attendance in high school, or at least $250 per teacher, and a further sum not exceeding $5 a month per pupil, to pay for the transportation of high-school pupils not living in high-school districts. (Formerly the territory outside of high-school districts in counties not maintaining county high schools was taxed only to pay tuition of pupils residing therein and attending high school elsewhere.)

Ch. 717, June 10, 1915.

California: Adding a new section to the Political Code to be numbered 1739a, relating to the organization of county high-school districts.

Whenever one or more city, district, or union high-school districts have been organized in any county maintaining one or more county high schools, all common-school districts not included in any city, district, union, or joint union high-school district shall constitute a union high-school district and shall be governed by a high-school board elected according to law; *provided*, that in any county maintaining two or more county high schools, the board of supervisors shall organize all common-school districts not included in any city, district, union, or joint union high-school district into as many union high-school districts as there are county high schools maintained in such county.

Ch. 482, May 24, 1915.

California: Amending sec. 1750 of the Political Code, relating to adoption of course of study and textbooks by high-school boards.

Provides that all high-school courses shall be subject to the approval of the State board of education. (Under old law incorporated cities and towns having board of education were exempted from this provision.) Requires the adoption of textbooks be from lists prescribed by State board of education and be certified to State board. State funds may be withheld from high-school district not maintaining course or courses approved by State board.

Ch. 597, June 1, 1915.

California: Adding a new section to the Political Code to be numbered 1752.

Empowers State board of education to call annually a convention of high- ool principals, or to divide the State into four divisions and to hold such a vention in each of said divisions. High-school boards shall pay actual ex- ses of principals attending such conventions. Ch. 483, May 24, 1915.

California: Adding sec. 1743a to the Political Code.

Requires high-school principals to report to the State board of education. Ch. 465, May 22, 1915.

California: Amending ch. 1741 of the Political Code, relating to the powers high-school boards.

Empowers high-school board to contract for the privileges of the county free rary. Ch. 464, May 22, 1915.

California: Amending sec. 1730 of the Political Code, relating to the election high-school boards.

Minor changes. Ch. 453, May 22, 1915.

California: Amending sec. 1756 of the Political Code, relating to the esti- te of tax for maintaining high school.

Minor amendment. Ch. 601, June 1, 1915.

California: Amending sec. 1729 of the Political Code, relating to the manner which high-school districts may unite. Ch. 118, Apr. 26, 1915.

California: Amending sec. 1731 of the Political Code, relating to the manner election or appointment of high-school boards. Ch. 461, May 22, 1915.

California: Amending sec. 172 of the Political Code and adding thereto sec. 50b, relating to junior colleges.

Authorizes the high-school board of any high-school district having an as- ssed valuation of $3,000,000 or more to provide for graduates of the high hool a junior-college course or courses of not exceeding two years' duration. Ch. 304, May 14, 1917.

California: Amending sec. 1728 of the Political Code, relating to the forma- on of joint union high-school districts.

Organized on petition of 100 registered electors in each district proposed to united. Ch. 544, May 18, 1917.

California: Providing for the adoption of textbooks for use in the public igh schools and for furnishing textbooks for the use of pupils of such schools. Ch. 550, May 18, 1917.

California: Amending sec. 1743 and repealing sec. 1743a of the Political ode relating to high-school principals and reports.

Permits such principal to be principal of elementary school of district in hich high school is located. He may be supervising principal of one or more lementary school districts included in high-school district. Repealed section elates to principals' report. It is in fact not repealed, but made a part of ec. 1743. Ch. 705, May 29, 1917.

California: Amending sec. 1750a of the Political Code, relating to the organi- ation of intermediate school courses.

Such course may include last two years of elementary course. May be bolished in any high-school district or county high school, but in county, nion, or joint union district course must have approval of majority of trustees f component elemetary school districts or be voted by majority of qualified lectors of high-school district. When average attendance of pupils in first wo years of such course falls below 25, course is lapsed. High-school board nay include in its estimates a tax for the maintenance of such course. Ch. 706, May 29, 1917.

California: Adding sec. 1750c to the Political Code, providing for the estab- ishment and maintenance by high-school boards of special classes and part-

time vocational courses and authorizing said boards to furnish transpor for teachers of agriculture supervising project work.
Ch. 717, May 31, [illegible]

Colorado: Relating to the organization, support, and maintenance of schools.

Where a union high school has been organized at a county seat, county missioners shall not levy a tax in the county outside of such high- district for the support of such school, and such high school shall not be to children outside of such district, except upon payment of tuition fe
Ch. 146, Mar. 24, [illegible]

Connecticut: Allowing school credit to high-school pupils over 14 years age who volunteer and are accepted for agricultural work on a farm.
Ch. 292, May 7, [illegible]

Delaware: Authorizing the board of public education in Wilmington to row $150,000 to be expended for the erection and equipment of an additi the Wilmington High School. Ch. 165, Mar. 16, [illegible]

Florida: See G (c), County and local normal schools.

Idaho: Providing for the payment of tuition of nonresident pupils atten high schools within the State.

Any school district which does not maintain a four-year high school pay tuition for pupils of such district who have completed the course therein and who desire to attend high school in another district. Not exc ing $3 per month may be charged, but $4 may be charged when at least approved departments of vocational work are offered by high school atten
Ch. 54, Mar. 9, [illegible]

Idaho: Amending sec. 187, ch. 159, Laws of 1911, as amended by sec. 115, Laws of 1913, relating to eighth grade examinations.

Amendment inserts "under the age of 15" after the word "pupil" provision that no pupil who has not taken the eighth grade examination be permitted to enter the first year of the high school. Ch. 57, Mar. 9, [illegible]

Idaho: Providing for the consolidation of two or more rural high-school tricts or one or more rural high-school districts with one or more com school districts adjacent thereto. Ch. 122, Mar. 15, [illegible]

Idaho: Amending secs. 1 and 4, ch. 54, Acts of 1915, relating to the paym of high-school tuition by districts not maintaining such schools.

Minor amendment as to manner of payment. For purposes of this act, school instruction shall be such as approved by State board of education or county superintendent in accordance with regulations of said board.
Ch. 13, Feb. 28, 191

Idaho: See also B (e), State aid for elementary education.

Illinois: Providing high-school privileges for graduates of the eighth gra

Graduates of the eighth grade whose home district does not provide school instruction for four years shall be entitled to attend a recognized school elsewhere for such part of four years' instruction as is not provi by home district; high school to be selected by parent or guardian of with approval of district board and county superintendent. "Recognized school" is one offering two or more years of work approved by State supe tendent. County superintendent shall pay tuition fees out of State fund ap tioned to county, but not more than average cost per pupil shall be paid county superintendent may limit annual tuition to $40 per pupil. Act of repealed. H. B. 357, p. 631, July 8, 1915.

Illinois: Amending "An act to authorize the organization of high-school tricts," approved June 5, 1911, by adding thereto an additional section pro ing for discontinuing such high-school districts.

Township high school may be discontinued by two-thirds vote at an elec called by county superintendent on petition of a majority of the legal vot of the district. S. B. 107, p. 630, June 24, [illegible]

linois: Legalizing the organization of certain high-school districts.
H. B. 101, p. 744, June 14, 1917.

linois: Amending secs. 88, 89, 90, 91, 92, 93, 94, 95, and 96 of "An act to blish and maintain a system of free schools," as amended, relating to the blishment of high-school districts and nonhigh-school districts.

xtends right of petition to those living in congressional townships, etc. its right to hold election and provides for the payment of expenses thereof; tion on petition of 50 or more legal voters; majority vote decides. Subject ippeal to State superintendent, board composed of county superintendent, ity judge, and county clerk may fix boundaries of high-school district. rd of high-school district shall have powers and duties of boards of educa- under the general law; elections regulated. High-school district discon- ied by two-thirds vote of legal voters at election called on petition of 50 nore such voters. In each county all territory not included in a township i-school district or a community high-school district or a school district ntaining a four-year high school shall be organized into a nonhigh-school rict for the purpose of paying the high-school tuition fees of qualified pupils ding therein; board of education provided for such non high-school district. ird of nonhigh-school district empowered to levy tax, pay tuition, etc. County isurer to be custodian of funds of nonhigh-school district. Qualified pupils nonhigh-school district may attend any recognized high school; tuition not exceed average cost per pupil. H. B. 707, p. 737, June 22, 1917.

llinois: See also E (b), Teachers' certificates, general.

ndiana: Amending sec. 3, ch. 193, Acts of 1911, relating to the establishment l maintenance of high schools.

Provides that township, townships, and incorporated towns contracting with r city or incorporated town for high-school accommodations shall be entitled representation on the governing board of such high school.
Ch. 13, Feb. 22, 1915.

Indiana: Providing for the establishment and maintenance of joint high iools in two adjoining townships in certain cases.
Ch. 141, Mar. 10, 1915.

Indiana: Amending ch. 134, Acts of 1913, relating to the establishment of wnship high schools.

In each township having an assessed valuation of over $600,000, and wherein ere is not now established a high school in such township or town therein d where there is no high school within 3 miles of the boundary of said town- ip, and wherein for the last two years there have been in said township eight more graduates of the elementary schools, the township trustee shall (for- erly, may) establish and maintain therein a high school. In any township ving a valuation of over $1,250,000, on petition of 40 or more persons having arge of children of school age, township trustee shall establish and main- in a high school or joint high school and elementary school, at place named petition, notwithstanding there may be a high school within 3 miles of the oundary of the township. Ch. 168, Acts of 1917.

Indiana: See also E (b), Teachers' certificates, general; K (c), Uniformity t textbooks; L (c), Physical education; O (a), Industrial education, general.

Iowa: Relating to county high schools.

Reduces from 2 mills to 1 mill on the dollar the maximum county tax that iay be levied for improvements, teachers' wages, and contingent expenses for ounty high schools. School laws, 1915, p. 153.

Iowa: Relating to tuition fees of pupils residing in districts not maintaining igh schools but attending high school elsewhere.

Allows district credit for taxes paid to county high-school funds.
School laws, 1915, p. 17.

Iowa: Amending sec. 2733-1a, Supplemental Supplement to the Code, 1915, elating to high-school tuition of nonresident pupils.

District where pupils reside must pay tuition to district where child is if not exceeding $5 per month, or $7 per month to a district wherein is a of the first class, but not to exceed the average cost of such tuition in a high school. Ch. 156, Apr. 7, 1915.

Kansas: Providing for the establishment of rural high-school districts.

Legal electors of territory containing not less than 16 square miles may establish and maintain a rural high school. On petition of two-fifths of the electors of proposed district, county commissioners shall call an election thereon to determine question of establishing and locating such school and of issuing bonds to provide site and building; majority vote shall determine, but if territory contains an incorporated city or town of over 300 inhabitants, a majority vote therein shall be necessary in addition to vote outside of such city or town; after favorable vote, county superintendent shall call a meeting in district to elect a rural high-school board to consist of a director, clerk, and treasurer. Said board shall meet annually and make the necessary tax levy but not to exceed 4 mills on the dollar of taxable property; county treasurer shall collect such tax. Site may be acquired by condemnation. If district lies in more than one county, treasurer of each county shall collect tax for that part of district lying in his county; high school shall be under supervision of superintendent of county containing largest part of district. Course of study shall be prescribed by rural high-school board with approval of State board of education. Pupils having completed elementary course shall be admitted, but with approval of county superintendent elementary studies may be offered. Adjacent territory outside of rural high-school district may be attached thereto on petition of a majority of electors of such territory and on approval of rural high-school board and county superintendent.

Chapter 262, Session laws of 1911, and other conflicting acts are repealed. Ch. 311, Mar. 9, 1915.

Kansas: Amending sec. 7765, General Statutes of 1909, relating to the establishment of county high schools.

Reduces from 6,000 to 2,000 the population which a county must have in order to establish a county high school. Ch. 316, Mar. 23, 1915.

Kansas: Relating to county high schools heretofore established by special act, providing for elections to authorize the county commissioners to levy a tax for building and furnishing buildings for said county high schools, and repealing conflicting acts. Ch. 318, Mar. 11, 1915.

Kansas: Amending secs. 1 and 2, ch. 279, Session Laws of 1913, relating to the maintenance of high schools in certain counties.

Increases from $\frac{3}{4}$ mill to $\frac{9}{10}$ mill the tax that may be levied for county high schools. This act shall not apply to counties having a valuation in excess of $28,000,000 (was $30,000,000). It shall not apply to counties having county high schools established after 1906 (was 1901). Ch. 317, Mar. 9, 1915.

Kansas: Relating to the payment of tuition fees of nonresident high-school pupils.

In every county in which provision is not made for free high-school tuition for qualified pupils, any holder of a common-school diploma residing in a district not maintaining a four-year accredited high school may attend any accredited high school of the county, or the high school nearest to his residence, and his tuition fees shall be paid. When a majority of the electors of any county to which this act may apply shall so vote, this act shall apply to such county, but only electors living in part of county subject to taxation under this act shall be entitled to vote on the proposition. County superintendent shall annually certify number of qualified pupils to which this act applies and amount of money necessary to pay their tuition; county commissioners shall thereupon levy a tax to pay such tuition; said tax shall be levied only in that part of county not contained in a district maintaining a four-year accredited high school or rural high school. Tuition rate allowed, $1 for each week pupil attends.

Section 7790, General Statutes of 1909 and other conflicting acts are repealed. Ch. 314, Mar. 24, 1915.

Kansas: Amending secs. 5 and 6, ch. 263, Session Laws of 1911, relating to ounty aid for high schools.

Omits provision that only one school shall be aided in counties having a opulation of 3,000 or less; increases maximum tax levy in such counties from mill to 1½ mills. Ch. 315, Mar. 24, 1915.

Kansas: Authorizing county high schools established under special acts to ome under the provisions of the general law relating to county high schools nd repealing all acts and parts of acts in conflict with this act.

Ch. 313, Mar. 12, 1915.

Kansas: Relating to township high schools; providing for acquisition of sites or buildings; creating such districts bodies corporate, and authorizing conemnation proceedings in certain cases. Ch. 312, Feb. 10, 1915.

Kansas: Amending sec. 3, ch. 271, Session Laws of 1913, relating to examiations for common-school diplomas.

Provides that examinations for rural schools shall be held on first and econd Saturdays in April and for graded schools on the first Saturday in ay and Friday preceding. Ch. 300, Mar. 24, 1915.

Kansas: Amending sec. 9409, General Statutes of 1915, authorizing school oards to acquire land by condemnation.

Adds boards of trustees of county high school to school authorities which ay acquire land by condemnation. Adds "agricultural, industrial, and athletic urposes" to purposes for which land may be so acquired.

Ch. 273, Mar. 12, 1917.

Kansas: Authorizing counties having high schools organized under the proisions of ch. 147, Laws of 1886, to issue bonds of the county for the purchase f site and erection of building. Ch. 282, Mar. 12, 1917.

Kansas: Extending the course of study in high schools and authorizing a tax evy therefor.

Provides for a two-year course in advance of the regular course approved by he State board of education. Applies to cities of first and second classes and o county high schools. Such extension must have approval of majority of lectors voting at a special or general election. Tax of 2 mills in city or ⅒ mill in county may be levied. State board of education to prescribe course f study. Students completing such extension course to be entitled to credit llowed by State board to persons completing a two-year accredited college ourse. Ch. 283, Mar. 13, 1917.

Kansas: Amending secs. 9347, 9348, 9349, 9351, 9352, 9354, and 9355, General Statutes of 1915, relating to rural high schools, and repealing secs. 9358 and 359 of said statutes.

Formation of rural high-school districts; county superintendent to approve oundaries. Petition by two-fifths of legal electors; location and amount of bonds stated in petition; disorganization of rural high school on petition and election. Where proposed high-school district contains town or city of over 500 inhabitants, vote taken separately. High school board to meet annually and fix tax levy not to exceed 4 mills. High school board may secure site, issue bonds, etc. County superintendent may transfer territory from one rural high-school district to another; to have supervision of rural high schools. State board of education to prescribe course of study; may extend course to include last two years of elementary school. Township high schools placed under rural high-school law. Ch. 284, Mar. 13, 1917.

Kansas: Limiting to 2/10 of a mill the high-school tax levied in counties having high schools organized under ch. 397, session laws of 1905.

Ch. 285, Mar. 12, 1917.

Kansas: Amending sec. 9339, General Statutes of 1915, limiting tax levy for certain high-school purposes.

Limits to 1½ mills the county tax for aid to high schools provided for 263, session laws of 1911. Ch. 286, Mar. 12,

Kansas: Requiring county commissioners to make tax levy to pay ness contracted for high schools. Ch. 287, Mar. 13,

Kansas: Limiting to $\frac{1}{10}$ of a mill the high-school tax levy in counties high schools organized under ch. 147, session laws of 1886, or ch. laws of 1905. Ch. 288, Feb. 5,

Kansas: Directing county commissioners to pay tuition of high-school residing in remote place and not sufficient in number to justify of high school at such place. Ch. 289, Mar. 7,

Kansas: Repealing sec. 9362, General Statutes of 1915, relating to the ment by county of tuition of high-school pupils not otherwise provided high-school privileges.

Repealed section provided for submission of proposal to pay such qualified electors. Law now requires payment of such tuition without electors. Ch. 290, Mar. 6,

Kansas: Repealing sec. 9301, General Statutes of 1915, relating to of normal course in high schools.

Repealed section entitled such graduates to a second-grade teacher's cate and to admission to first year of professional work in State normal Those graduating from collegiate course were entitled to admission to class of State university and State Agricultural College without further nation. Ch. 291, Mar. 12,

Kansas: Limiting tax levy for county high schools organized under ch. Laws of 1886.

Such levy not to exceed 3 mills on the dollar. Act not to apply to having a valuation of more than $15,000,000. Ch. 327, Mar. 9,

Kansas: See also A (b1), State boards; K (c), Uniform textbooks; Agriculture.

Kentucky: Providing for the erection, organization, and maintenance county high schools jointly by two or more adjacent counties, and pupils to attend high schools in counties other than their own.

Ch. 81, 1916. (Neither approved nor disapproved by the governor.)

Louisiana: See A (a), Administration and supervision, general.

Maine: Amending sec. 63, ch. 15, of the Revised Statutes, as amended, ing to the tuition of pupils in secondary schools.

Qualified pupils residing in towns not maintaining high schools may B or C class high schools in other towns (was four-year standard course tuition fees of such pupils shall be paid by home town.

Ch. 223, Mar. 30, 1915

Maine: Amending sec. 4, ch. 71, Public Acts of 1909, relating to the tion of free high schools.

Omits word "annually" from provision that State-aided high schools be inspected under direction of State superintendent; increases for high-school inspection from $2,000 to $2,200. Ch. 193, Mar. 24, 1915

Maine: Amending sec. 81, ch. 15, of the Revised Statutes, as amended ch. 78, Public Laws of 1907, limiting the amount of State aid to academies.

Increases from $1,600 to $2,000 the income which academy may receive invested funds and still receive State aid; omits provision that academy have income exceeding $1,600 and still receive State aid if courses in training, manual training, domestic science, or agriculture are maintained.

Ch. 205, Mar. 24, 1915

Maine: Amending sec. 85, ch. 16, Revised Statutes of 1916, increasing maximum annual tuition in secondary schools.

Pupil in town not maintaining a standard scondary school may attend such ool elsewhere and town shall pay not exceeding $36 per annum for tuition. mended law allowed maximum of $30.) Ch. 229, Apr. 7, 1917.

Maine: See also S (b), Public-school libraries.

Maryland: See A (a), Administration and supervision, general.

Michigan: Amending sec. 5, Act No. 65, Public Acts of 1909, as amended by t No. 14, Public Acts of 1911, relating to transportation and tuition of chilen who have completed the eighth grade.

Defines "high school" to include seventh and eighth grades; recognizes the nion high school." Act No. 8, Mar. 9, 1915.

Michigan: Amending secs. 1, 2, and 3, Act No. 144, Public Acts of 1901, as st amended by Act No. 97, Public Acts of 1909, relating to rural high schools.

Provides for manner of discontinuance of such schools. Discontinuance deterined by two-thirds vote of qualified electors.
Act No. 22, Mar. 25, 1915.

Michigan: Amending sec. 5830, Compiled Laws of 1915, relating to the tuion of high-school pupils attending high school in other than home districts.

School board of district not maintaining a high school must pay tuition of s high-school pupils attending in another district, but school attended must ive approval of State superintendent.

Board may not pay exceeding $25 per year per pupil ($20 in older law), but istrict may vote a larger amount. Act No. 11, Mar. 22, 1917.

Michigan: Authorizing boards of education in school districts having over 0,000 population to provide for the establishing and offering advanced courses f study to high-school graduates.

Course not to exceed two years in duration. Act No. 146, Apr. 25, 1917.

Minnesota: See B (e), State aid for elementary education; H (e), Consoliation of districts, etc.; L (i), Manual and industrial education.

Mississippi: An act to establish a State board of law examiners; to regulate dmission of persons to practice law, and to repeal secs. 208, 209, 210, 211, 212, nd 213 of the Code of 1906, and ch. 204, of the laws of 1912.

Requires among other things that applicant for admission to the bar have at east a high-school education; permits graduates of the State university with he degree of bachelor of laws to practice law without examination.
Ch. 107, Mar. 7, 1916.

Mississippi: An act to amend ch. 191, laws of 1914, so as to make it unnecessary to hold an election against the tax levy for an agricultural high school at any time when an average of more than 35 boarding pupils is maintained in the school.

Tax levy can not be submitted to election to rescind if such attendance is maintained. Ch. 196. Apr. 3, 1916.

Mississippi: See also B (f), State aid for secondary education.

Missouri: Authorizing the establishment of high schools for colored children in all counties of this State which have a population of more than 100,000 and which adjoin a city having a population of 500,000 or more.
H. B. 415, p. 498, Apr. 9, 1917.

Missouri: See also B (e), State aid for elementary education; G (c), County and local normal schools.

Montana: Amending sec. 2112, ch. 76, Session Laws of 1913, providing for the support of district high schools.

In any county maintaining a county high school, a district maintaining a high school accredited by State superintendent shall be entitled to share in the county high-school moneys, and money derived from high-school levy shall be apportioned by county superintendent to accredited high schools accordin average daily attendance in the year next preceding. In any county wi no county has been established, but in which one or more districts mai accredited high-school classes, a special tax levy not exceeding 3 mills on ea dollar of taxable property in the district may be made for the benefit of s high schools; the money derived from such levy shall be apportioned by county superintendent to the several districts in which such tax is levied a cording to the average daily attendance in accredited classes for the year n preceding. Attendance at any high school to whose support such money is a portioned in accordance with this act shall be free to all eligible pupils r siding within the district in the county in which such accredited high school i situated. Ch. 119, Mar. 8, 191

Montana: Amending sec. 2108, ch. 76, Session Laws of 1913, providing f a tax levy for county high-school purposes.

Reduces from 10 mills to 5 mills the amount of county tax that may levied for building purposes, teachers' wages, and contingent expenses; i creases from 3 mills to 5 mills the amount that may be levied for teach wages and contingent expenses when no building tax is levied.
Ch. 115, Mar. 8, 191

Montana: Providing for a high-school tax and providing for high-sc instruction in all counties not having county high schools.

Provides for tax of not exceeding 3 mills on the dollar. One-year, two-ye three-year and four-year high schools in the county may be approved and r ceive benefit of such tax. Ch. 105 Feb. 27, 191

Montana: Amending sec. 2109, ch. 76, Acts of 1913, relating to the submission to electors of question of bond issue for county high schools.

Adds provision that district maintaining a high school may discontinue t same and become part of county high school district. When county high sch is located in such district, district high school must be discontinued.
Ch. 167, Mar. 3, 191

Montana: See also G (c), County and local normal schools.

Nebraska: Amending secs. 6819 and 6833, Revised Statutes of 1913, relat to county high schools, and repealing secs. 6820, 6821 and 6834 of said Rev Statutes.

A county high school shall be established in every county in which there i not now located a 12-grade high school accredited to the State university. A grades above eighth shall be high-school grades. Course of study shall be th issued by State university and State superintendent or a course approved b State superintendent. Manual training, domestic science, and the elements o agriculture shall be taught in the ninth and tenth grades; normal training i the theory and practice of agriculture shall be taught in the eleventh a twelfth grades. County board shall purchase not less than 5 acres of lan convenient to said high school for experimentation under the direction of competent instructor. Qualifications are fixed for voters on question of issu bonds for county high-school purposes. Repealed section 6820 related to petition and election for establishment of a county high school. Section 6821 directed the county board to declare the high school established when voted b the qualified electors. Section 6834 provided for the nomination of cities a villages as candidates for the location of county high school.
Ch. 120, Mar. 9, 191

Nebraska: Amending Art. VII, ch. 71, Revised Statutes of 1913, relating t rural high schools.

Provides that proposition to unite two or more common-school districts in a high-school district shall be submitted by action of 10 or more qualified electors; each district in which a majority of qualified electors by vote favor su union shall become a part of high-school disrtict. State aid to approved two-room rural high school having departments in agriculture and home econom or other industrial subjects, $100 toward equipment and $150 annually; approved three-room school, $150 toward equipment and $200 annually; four o more rooms, $250 toward equipment and $300 annually.
Ch. 118, Apr. 17, 191

ebraska: Amending sec. 6814, Revised Statutes of 1913, relating to high-ool tuition of nonresident pupils.

aises from 75 cents to $1 per week the amount which pupil's home district st pay to district maintaining high school which pupil attends, unless such ne district is unable to maintain common school nine months with maximum levy allowed by law. Ch. 119, Apr. 14, 1915.

ebraska: Amending secs. 6805, 6806, 6808, 6809, and 6810, Revised Statutes, 3, as amended by ch. 118, Acts of 1915, relating to rural high-school districts.

rovides for annual meeting in such districts. Board to consist of three nbers, one elected each year for term of three years. Estimates adopted by lified electors at annual meeting shall be submitted to county clerk for tax y. State aid provided. Ch. 122, Apr. 25, 1917.

ebraska: Amending sec. 6814, Revised Statutes, 1913, as amended by ch. , Acts of 1915, relating to tuition of nonresident pupils in high schools.

ncreases from $1 to $1.50 per week the high-school tuition fee. Ch. 123, Apr. 25, 1917.

ebraska: Amending sec. 6830, Revised Statutes, 1913, relating to taxation county high schools.

roperty of district maintaining high school shall be exempt from tax for nty high school in following proportion: For one year of high-school work en, one-fourth of proportional share of county high-school tax; for two years, -half of such tax; for three years, three-fourths of such tax; for four years, al exemption. Ch. 125, Apr. 19, 1917.

Nebraska: See also A (f), Administrative units—districts, etc.; C (b), Local nds and indebtedness; O (a), Industrial education, general.

Nevada: Providing for the establishment of branch county high schools der certain conditions in counties having county high schools.

School district may petition county commissioners for county aid for high ool. County board of education must first certify to the following facts: (1) at such district has already 20 or more qualified high-school pupils in attend-ce and is doing full high-school work; (2) that district's income from State d county is insufficient for giving necessary high-school instruction and the sessed valuation is too low to raise the needed funds; (3) that district is uated 40 miles or more from county high school; (4) that district will pro-le the necessary rooms or building; (5) that district asks for a branch high ool to be under control of county board of education. Ch. 154, Mar. 17, 1915.

Nevada: Authorizing county commissioners in counties not having high hools to aid district high schools under certain conditions.

County commissioners may levy a county tax of 10 cents on $100 of taxable operty to aid such schools (1) if such high schools have standard course in mmercial work, manual arts, domestic arts or agriculture; (2) if district is vying not less than 15 cents on $100 for such high school; (3) if all qualified pils of the county are admitted. If more than one such high school is main-ined in a county, said county tax shall be apportioned to such schools as fol-ws: (1) One-third on basis of high-school enrollment, (2) one-third on the mparative school census of the districts affected, (3) one-third on the com-rative assessed valuation of the districts affected. District board maintain-g such high school may provide dormitories and dining hall. Ch. 78, Mar. 9, 1915.

Nevada: Providing for bonding counties for building and equipping county gh schools and dormitories, or for either of these purposes. Ch. 15, Feb. 16, 1917.

Nevada: Providing for civic and physical training in the high schools.

Duty of school officers in control of high schools to provide such training. Ch. 146, Mar. 21, 1917.

New Hampshire: Amending sec. 6, ch. 96, Laws of 1901, as amended by ch. 90, Laws of 1905, relating to high schools and academies.

Provides that upon application in writing, school board may assign the school pupils to high schools or academies other than that with which previous contract exists and may pay tuition of such pupils. When application is denied, person making the same may appeal to superintendent of public instruction for final decision. Ch. 126, Apr. 15, 1915.

New Hampshire: Amending sec. 1, ch. 96, Acts of 1901, as amended by ch. 118, Acts of 1903, relating to high schools.

Increases from $40 to $55 the tuition fee which a city, town or school district may charge for a nonresident high-school pupil. Ch. 16, Feb. 20, 1917.

New Hampshire: Providing for the further instruction of pupils in rural schools.

School boards in district not maintaining a high school must provide for the further instruction, not less than two years, of graduates of the elementary schools. Ch. 24, Feb. 21, 1917.

New Hampshire: Amending sec. 6, ch. 96, Acts of 1901, as last amended by ch. 126, Acts of 1915, relating to free tuition in high schools and academies.

Authorizes school districts to contract with high schools, academies, etc., for the instruction of high-school pupils of such districts. In case of hardship on pupil, his parent or guardian or other responsible citizen may apply to school board for his transfer to another high school or academy; appeal to State superintendent. Ch. 219, Apr. 19, 1917.

New Mexico: Providing for the teaching of higher grades in the rural schools of the State.

In a one-teacher school where as many as six grades are taught no instruction shall be given in studies above the eighth grade, but two or more districts may combine, under direction of county superintendent and with approval of State superintendent, and may designate a central school where the higher grades may be taught. Said superintendents, with county commissioners, [illegible] make necessary provisions for such higher instruction. Ch. 29, Mar. 8, 1917.

New Mexico: See also A (cl), County boards.

New York: Amending the education law, relative to the payment of State tuition for pupils in contracting districts.

Whenever a district contracts with another district or city which maintains a high school or academic department and whenever the expense of the tuition and transportation for the elementary pupils of said district shall exceed [illegible] the tuition of the academic pupils attending such high school or academy, pupils from such contracting district, may be paid by the State. Ch. 194, Apr. 3, 1915.

New York: Amending the education law, relative to the payment of State tuition for the instruction of nonresident academic pupils.

Provides that parents or guardians may supplement amount paid by State for non-resident tuition in high schools. Ch. 214, Apr. 5, 1915.

New York: Amending the education law, relative to consolidation of school districts as a high-school district for the purpose of erecting and maintaining a central high school. Ch. 137, Apr. 5, 1917.

North Carolina: Permitting high-school pupils to attend the public high schools of adjoining counties.

Attendance to be permitted upon such terms as boards of education may deem just. Ch. 211, Mar. 6, 1917.

North Carolina: Increasing from $75,000 to $100,000 the annual appropriation for public high schools. Ch. 227, Mar. 6, 1917.

North Carolina: See also B (e), State aid for elementary education; C (b), ocal bonds and indebtedness.

North Dakota: Amending sec. 1433, Compiled Laws of 1913, relating to high-chool inspectors and State aid for high schools.

Reduces from 10 to 5 the number of high schools having an agricultural, anual training, and domestic economy department which may each receive tate aid of $2,500 annually. Provides State aid of $200 annually for approved ne-year high schools. Ch. 42, Mar. 11, 1915.

North Dakota: See also B (e), State aid for elementary education; C (c), ocal taxation.

Ohio: See A (f), Administrative units—districts, etc.

Oklahoma: Requiring independent and common-school districts where State chools are located and which do not maintain a high school to aid in the suport of said State school.

For each of its pupils attending such State school district shall pay an mount equal to average cost per pupil in said school. Ch. 84, Mar. 5, 1915.

Oklahoma: See also E (e), Recognition of normal and college diplomas.

Oregon: Providing for a county high-school tuition fund; for the distribuion of the same; prescribing standards for high schools in districts entitled to he fund, and providing that secs. 4180–4189 and sec. 4191 of Lord's Oregon aws be superceded by this act in counties having 100 000 inhabitants or more.

For the purpose of educating high-school pupils residing in any county in hich there is no county high school, and not in any high-school district, a speial tax shall annually be levied by the county court of each county in which here is no county high school upon all the taxable property of the county not ituated in any high-school district, to be known as the county high-school uition fund. County superintendent shall apportion said fund to high-school istricts in proportion to number of high-school pupils who are educated therein nd reside in districts not maintaining high schools. No high school shall eceive funds provided by this act unless such school conforms to standards rescribed by State board of education. No pupil shall receive the benefit of aid fund unless said pupil shall hold an eighth grade diploma or the equivalent hereof. This act shall not apply to any county in which the provisions of secions mentioned above (provision for county high schools) have been put into peration by vote of the electors, but shall apply to counties of 100,000 inhabiants or more. Ch. 235, Feb. 24, 1915.

Oregon: Amending sec. 4194 of Lord's Oregon Laws, relating to union high chools, and providing a manner for the dissolution of union high-school disricts.

Amendment provides that a part (as well as all) of a common-school district may be united with other such districts to form a union high-school district. A union high-school district may be dissolved by election at which a majority of the districts composing union shall be in favor of such dissolution. Ch. 40, Feb. 9, 1915.

Oregon: Amending sec. 4188, Lord's Oregon Laws, relating to high-school tuition.

No high school shall receive tuition for any high-school pupil from the county high-school fund, unless such pupil holds an eighth grade diploma or its equivalent. Ch. 66, Feb. 9, 1917.

Oregon: See also L (c), Physical education.

Pennsylvania: Amending sec. 1707 of the School Code of 1911, relating to high school accommodations.

Pupils residing in a district not maintaining a high school may at expense of their home district attend a high school in another district; or where district where pupils reside maintain a high school of lower grade than a four-year school, such pupils may attend a three-year or four-year school in another district for such higher grades as are not provided by the district in which they reside. Act No. 303, June 1, 1915.

Pennsylvania: Authorizing township school districts which entirely surround a city or borough to acquire lands in such city or borough, and to erect thereon buildings for high-school purposes; and exempting property so acquired from taxation by such city, borough, or school district thereof; and authorizing such township school directors to enter upon and occupy sufficient ground for such high-school purposes; and providing for the determination of damages done and suffered by the owners of the land by reason of the taking thereof for such high-school purposes. Act No. 399, June 7, 1915.

South Carolina: An act to establish and maintain high schools and to repeal secs. 1825, 1826, 1827, 1828, 1829, 1830, 1831, 1832, 1833, 1834, and 1835 of the Code of 1912, Vol. I.

Authorizes trustees of any common-school district or aggregation of adjoining districts to establish a high school under regulations of State board of education. Board of trustees shall consist of district trustees in case of a single district; of trustees of district where high school is located and chairman of each of other districts in case such school is established by two or more districts. Public high schools already established may receive the benefit of this act. State board of education may provide for inspection and classification of high schools and for the disbursement of funds appropriated by this act. In order to receive State aid high school must have at least two teachers and an enrollment of at least 25. State aid as follows: Two teachers not exceeding $500; three teachers, not exceeding $600; four teachers or more not exceeding $700. Additional appropriations may be made for high-school pupils attending from outside the district and for meritorious work in agriculture, manual training, and domestic science. State board may establish not exceeding five teacher-training courses in high schools; not more than one such course in any one county; State aid of not exceeding $1,000 for such course; enrollment shall not be less than 10 persons, all over 17 years of age. Eighty thousand dollars annually appropriated. Every high school receiving aid under this act shall receive free of tuition any high-school pupil of the county. District or districts receiving aid under this act shall levy a school tax for common schools, high school, or both of not less than 4 mills. State board may apprpriate money for the payment of a State high-school inspector. Repealed sections provided for the establishment of high schools by vote of the people; did not apply to districts or townships containing an incorporated town or city of 2,500 population or more; made no provision for teacher training in high schools; based State aid on number of years in high-school course. Act No. 501, Mar. 15, 1916.

South Dakota: Amending sec. 138, ch. 135, Acts of 1907, relating to branches to be taught in the district schools.

Omits music. Adds high-school subjects when voted by electors of the district. Ch. 214, Mar. 10, 1917.

South Dakota: Providing tuition in high school for graduates of eighth grade. Ch. 216, Feb. 10, 1917.

South Dakota: Amending sec. 213, ch. 135, Acts of 1907, relating to township high schools.

Changes from 50 freeholders to 25 electors the number necessary on a petition to secure an election on the question of establishing a township high school. Ch. 220, Mar. 10, 1917.

South Dakota: See also H (e), Consolidation, etc., of districts.

Tennessee: Classifying public schools as elementary schools and public high schools, and providing for their support and regulation.

Elementary schools to consist of first eight grades. High schools to consist of four years and may be two-year, three-year or four-year schools; course of study as prescribed by State board of education. County high-school board to establish a sufficient number of two-year high schools for rural communiies, but not to affect four-year schools already established. State tax of one-alf mill on the dollar for the promotion of high schools; said tax to be collected and disbursed in county where collected. At least three teachers required for four-year high school; at least two for three-year; at least one for wo-year school. Where not sufficient funds to maintain needed high schools, igh-school subjects may be offered in elementary schools of two teachers or ore. County court to elect high-school board. County court may raise tax o supplement funds herein provided for. Ch. 96, Apr. 7, 1917.

Tennessee: See also B (e), State aid for elementary education.

Texas: See A (c1), County boards.

Utah: See A (c1), County boards; B (d), State taxation for school purposes; C (c), local taxation.

Vermont: Providing for the establishment of junior and senior high schools nd vocational education.

State board of education may, with approval of school directors of towns concerned, divide the secondary schools of the State into junior high schools having four-year course, and senior high schools having a six-year course. A junior igh school may be maintained in any town where the number of secondary upils shall warrant; arrangement may be made with an academy for high-chool instruction, but such arrangement must have approval of State board. School directors, where no junior high-school work is provided, may arrange for the instruction of the town's junior high-school pupils elsewhere. Junior high school shall have a four-year course for pupils who have completed at least six grades; State board of education shall arrange courses. Number and location of senior high schools and the regions to be served thereby shall be determined by the State board of education; said board may designate an academy as a senior high school. School directors where no high school is maintained may arrange for the instruction of the town's senior high-school pupils elsewhere. Senior high school shall have (*a*) a four-year junior course as in junior high school and (*b*) a two-year senior course in advance of the junior course. Junior course shall include a vocational course in one or more of the following: Agriculture, manual arts, commercial subjects, domestic science. Expense of vocational courses borne by town; State board shall so reimburse town as to fairly equalize facilities afforded by such courses and the burden of maintaining the same; said board may provide at expense of the State lands for such schools. In senior high school following vocational courses: (*a*) In junior department same as in junior high school; (*b*) in two-year senior department, advanced vocational courses. State board of education shall prescribe courses in senior schools and appoint teachers therefor, but courses in agriculture must have approval of trustees of State agricultural schools. Expenses of vocational courses in senior school shall be annually apportioned by State board between State and town served by such school; said board may provide land for such school. All matters of decision undetermined by language of this act shall be determined by State board of education. The sum of $5,000 annually appropriated. Act No. 69, Apr. 1, 1915.

Vermont: Amending sec. 1017, Public Statutes of 1906, relating to high-school facilities.

Where a town does not maintain a high school, its high-school pupils may attend elsewhere, school to be selected by parent or guardian of pupil. Tuition per pupil not to exceed $36 per year, unless town votes to pay more. State aid to pay such tuition granted on basis of tax valuation of towns; the larger the valuation the less aid; no aid to town having a "grand list" of over $15,000. (Property valuation of $1,500,000.) Act No. 70, Apr. 2, 1915.

Vermont: See A (a), Administration and supervision, general; B (e), State aid for elementary education.

Washington: See A (b1), State boards; B (f), State aid for secondary education.

West Virginia: Amending sec. 30, ch. 27, Acts of 1908, as amended by ch. 68, Acts of 1911, relating to the establishment of district high schools, the classification of high schools, and the distribution of State aid to classified high schools.

District high school may be established by majority (was ⅔) vote of qualified voters. Limit of State appropriation to $40,000 for State aid to high schools is removed by amendment. Ch. 61, Feb. 16, 1915

West Virginia: See also C (c), Local taxation; E (b), Teachers' certificates, general; G (c), County and local normal schools.

Wisconsin: Creating sec. 496h-1 of the statutes, relating to tuition fees to be charged nonresident pupils attending State graded schools of the first class.

Pupil having completed State elementary course of study and residing in a district not offering high-school branches may attend in another district a first class graded school offering ninth and tenth grades approved by State superintendent, and district where pupil's parent or guardian resides shall pay tuition of such pupil for such ninth and tenth grades, but not to exceed $1 per week. Ch. 194, June 10, 1915

Wisconsin: Amending subsec. 1 of sec. 494a and sec. 172-116 of the statutes, relating to winter terms for high schools, and making appropriation therefor.

Increases from 10 to 15 the number of high schools which may receive State aid for maintaining approved winter courses for one-half the school year; strikes out restriction of such high schools to those not under supervision of a city superintendent. Increases from $5,000 to $7,500 the annual appropriation for such courses. Ch. 397, July 14, 1915

Wisconsin: Amending sec. 495-20 and repealing sec. 495-6m of the statutes, authorizing the dissolution of union free high-school districts.

Amends provision that such district shall not be dissolved within four years after organization by providing that such dissolution may be affected if site is not provided and building begun within one year of organization. Majority vote of electors of high-school district is necessary to dissolve, unless district contains a village, in which case both village and territory outside thereof shall separately cast a majority vote for dissolution. Ch. 138, May 26, 1915

Wisconsin: Creating sec. 515m of the statutes, authorizing high-school boards to engage principals for a term of not more than three years.
Ch. 198, June 10, 1915

Wisconsin: Amending sec. 5531-1 of the statutes, relating to the salaries to be paid to instructors of special branches in high schools.

Permits the employment of assistant teachers of special branches at a lower salary than the minimum fixed by law for full instructors.
Ch. 480, July 29, 1915

Wisconsin: Amending sec. 496c-3 of the statutes, relating to commercial courses in high schools.

Amendment changes "stenography, typewriting, and bookkeeping," to "stenography, typewriting, bookkeeping, and other commercial subjects." State aid for such courses. Ch. 552, Aug. 17, 1915

Wisconsin: Creating sec. 490g of the statutes, relating to taxation of district free high-school districts contained within town or joint-town free high school district.

Such district so contained shall not be taxed in town district.
Ch. 464, July 29, 1915

Wisconsin: Amending sec. 496h-1, Wisconsin Statutes, relating to the tuition of nonresident pupils attending State graded schools of the first class.

No such school shall be entitled to collect such tuition unless the work of the ninth or tenth grades or both have been approved by the State inspector of graded schools. Ch. 71, Apr. 11, 1917

Wisconsin: Amending sec. 490a, Wisconsin Statutes, relating to the dissolution of free high schools.

When the electors of a joint school district having within its boundaries a village free high-school district vote to establish and maintain a high school, village high-school district shall be deemed dissolved.
Ch. 219, May 14, 1917.

Wisconsin: Regulating the establishment and maintenance of free high schools. Ch. 503, July 2, 1917.

Wisconsin: See also B (e), State aid for elementary education.

Wyoming: Empowering any school district establishing a high school to provide funds for its maintenance.

Authorizes a tax of not exceeding 2 mills on the dollar for maintenance and, n case of building, not exceeding 10 mills on the dollar.
Ch. 158, Mar. 5, 1915.

Wyoming: Empowering high-school districts to accept donations, bequests, etc.
Ch. 73, Feb. 19, 1917.

Wyoming: See also A (b1), State boards; G (c), County and local normal schools.

N (b). High-School Inspection.

Maine: Amending sec. 76, ch. 16, Revised Statutes of 1916, relating to the inspection of secondary schools.

Increases from $2,200 to $4,000 the amount which the State superintendent may expend for such inspection. Ch. 43, Mar. 15, 1917.

Maryland: See A (a), Administration and supervision, general.

North Carolina: See A (f), Administrative units—districts, etc.

South Carolina: See N (a), High school.

O. TECHNICAL, INDUSTRIAL, AND VOCATIONAL SCHOOLS: ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY.

(a) General.

Arizona: Accepting the benefits of an act of Congress providing for the promotion of vocational education.

Designates State board of education to carry out purposes of the act. Appropriates sum necessary to meet conditions of the act, but not less than $15,000. Ch. 44, Mar. 12, 1917.

Arkansas: Accepting the benefits of the Smith-Hughes Act of Congress providing Federal aid for vocational education.

State board of education designated for the purposes of said act. State treasurer to be custodian of funds. Act 181, Mar. 6, 1917.

California: Accepting the provisions of the Smith-Hughes Act of Congress providing Federal aid for vocational education.

State board of education is designated as the board for the purposes of said act. State treasurer designated custodian of funds.
Ch. 720, May 31, 1917.

California: See also N (a), High schools.

Colorado: Accepting the provisions of the Smith-Hughes Act of Congress providing Federal aid for vocational education.

Governing board of State Agricultural College, officially known as the State board of agriculture, is designated as the board for the purposes of the said act. State treasurer designated as custodian of funds.

Colorado: See also A (d), District boards and officers.

Connecticut: Limiting to $150,000 the annual State expenditure for and vocational schools. Ch. 307, May 16, 19

Connecticut: Accepting the provisions of the act of Congress pro vocational education, approved February 23, 1917.

State board of education designated for the purpose of this act. $33,000 appropriated. Ch. 383, May 17, 19

Connecticut: See also L (i), Manual and industrial education.

Delaware: Joint resolution to establish a commission to inquire into question of vocational education.

Authorizes governor to appoint a commission of five members to invest industrial, agricultural, home, and commercial occupations and report to legislature of 1917. Ch. 256, Mar. 16, 19

Delaware: Accepting the benefits of the Smith-Hughes Act providing Fe aid for vocational education.

State board of education designated for purposes of said act. State trea to be custodian of State funds and funds received from Federal Governm Sum of $15,0000 approprioted annually. Ch. 183, Apr. 2, 19

Florida: Accepting the provisions of the Smith-Hughes Act of Congress viding Federal aid for vocational education.

State board of education is made "State vocational education board." treasurer is designated custodian of funds. Ch. 7376, June 5, 19

Georgia: Accepting the provisions of the Smith-Hughes Act of Congress viding Federal aid for vocational education.

State board of vocational education created. Board to consist of seven bers, as follows: Chancellor of the university, State school superintend three members from the State at large, and two members from the trustee the dustrict agricultural and mechanical schools. Of members at large shall represent manufacturing and commercial interests; one, agricul interests; and one, labor interests. State treasurer to be custodian of fun No. 221, p. 200, Aug. 21, 19

Indiana: Relating to powers of school corporations in cities of 100.000 ulation or more.

Such corporation may admit nonresidents of the State to vocational schoo and charge tuition fees therefor. Such corporation may accept and hold trust gifts or bequests for vocational schools and may issue bonds to discharg obligations on property thus received. Such corporation may issue bonds provide additional high-school facilities. Ch. 78, Mar. 6, 1915

Indiana: Amending sec. 16, ch. 24, Acts of 1913, relating to vocatio education.

Reduces from one cent to one-half of 1 cent on each $100 of taxable proper the State tax for vocational education. Ch. 97, Mar. 5, 191

Indiana: Accepting the provisions of the Smith-Hughes Act of Congres providing Federal aid for vocational education.

State treasurer to be custodian of funds. State board of education designat as board to carry out provisions of the act. Ch. 112, Mar. 7, 191

Iowa: An act to create a State board for vocational education; authorizing such State board to promote and aid the establishment and maintenance of pre vocational and vocational schools, departments and classes giving instructio in agricultural, industrial, home economics, and commercial subjects; to cooper ate in the maintenance of teachers-training schools, departments and classes; and to certificate teachers of such subjects; providing for the inspection, ap proval, and disbursement of State and Federal moneys to approved teacher aining schools, departments and classes; and for the organization and admintration of the work of the State board for vocational education and of boards directors of school districts and appropriating money for the expenditures of ich State board. Ch. 290, Apr. 21, 1917.

Iowa: Accepting the provisions of the Smith-Hughes Act of Congress, proding Federal aid for vocational education.

State board of vocational education is designated the board for the purposes this act. State treasurer is made custodian of funds.
Ch. 300, Apr. 23, 1917.

Kansas: Accepting the provisions of the Smith-Hughes Act of Congress proding national aid for vocational education.

State board of education designated as board for the purposes of said act. tate treasurer designated as custodian of funds. Ch. 280, Mar. 12, 1917.

Kentucky: Accepting the provisions of the Smith-Lever Act and authorizing ie State university to receive the funds that accrue thereunder to the State Kentucky. Ch. 144, Mar. 4, 1916.

Louisiana: Accepting the provisions of the Smith-Hughes Act providing Fed:al aid for vocational education. Act No. 179, July 16, 1916.

Maine: Amending sec. 8, ch. 188, Public Laws of 1911, as amended by sec. 2, ı. 37, Public Laws of 1913, relating to the appropriation for the encouragement industrial education.

Increases such appropriation from $40,000 to $50,000 annually; unexpended alance to be added to permanent school fund. Ch. 143, Mar. 22, 1915.

Maine: Increasing from $50,000 to $64,000 the annual appropriation for the ncouragement of industrial education. Ch. 77, Mar. 26, 1917.

Maine: Accepting the provisions of the Smith-Hughes Act of Congress proiding Federal aid for vocational education.

Board created for purposes of said act. To consist of State superintendent s chairman and two other members appointed by governor with consent of ie council. State treasurer to be custodian of funds.
Ch. 186, Apr. 3, 1917.

Maryland: Assenting to the provisions of the Smith-Lever Act of Congress.
Ch. 551, Apr. 18, 1916.

Maryland: See also A (a), Administration and supervision, general.

Massachusetts: Accepting the provisions of an act of Congress relative to ie promotion of vocational education and providing for cooperation with the 'ederal Government.

Designates State board of education as board for purposes of said act. tate treasurer to be custodian of funds. Ch. 215, May 2, 1917.

Michigan: Accepting the provisions of the Smith-Hughes Act of Congress roviding Federal aid for vocational education.

State superintendent, president of State board of education, president of tate university, and president of State agricultural college are constituted a oard of control for vocational education. State treasurer to be custodian of unds. Local community to provide suitable building and equipment and to ay one-half as much as amount contributed by Federal Government for salaies of instructors, and State to pay the other half.
Act No. 189, May 5, 1917.

Minnesota: Accepting the provisions of the Smith-Hughes Act of Congress roviding Federal aid for vocational education.

The State high-school board is designated as the board for the purposes of he said act. State treasurer designated custodian of funds.
Ch. 491, Apr. 21, 1917.

Mississippi: Assenting to the provisions of the Smith-Lever Act of and empowering the trustees of the Mississippi Agricultural and College to receive grants under said act. Ch. 127, Apr.

Missouri: Accepting the provisions of the Smith-Hughes Act of providing Federal aid for vocational education.

State board of education is designated as board for the purposes of State treasurer custodian of funds. State board to certificate teachers ional subjects. H. B. 438, p. 512, Mar. 1

Montana: Accepting the provisions of the Smith-Hughes Act of providing Federal aid for vocational education.

Designates State board of education for the purposes of said act. treasurer to be custodian of funds. Ch. 102, Mar. 5,

Nebraska: Permitting the establishment and maintenance and provi the management of vocational departments in the schools of Nebraska.

State department of education is directed to investigate and aid in the duction of industrial, agricultural, and household arts education. board of education is authorized to accept the provisions of any act of gress enacted for the purpose of assisting and maintaining vocational dustrial education. District may establish day, part-time and evening for vocational training. Attendance restricted to those over 14 years in evening classes to those over 16, but no scholarship requirements made for elementary vocational classes. Board of education of county, high school, consolidated district, or other district maintaining a voca department or school shall appoint an advisory committee composed of bers representing local trades, industries, and occupations. Board of tion of any county, rural high school or consolidated district shall vocational departments with each rural high school or consolidate school. Vocational school may be supported out of the general funds of district. Two or more districts may unite in the establishment and nance of a vocational school. State board of education is authorized to warrants against State funds in order to comply with the provisions of Federal statute enacted for national aid to vocational education. Ch. 234, Apr. 17, 19

Nebraska: Accepting the provisions of the Smith-Hughes Act of Co providing Federal aid for vocational education.

State board of vocational education created; composed of governor, treasurer, and State superintendent, State treasurer constituted custodi funds. Ch. 227, Apr. 23,

Nevada: Providing for the administration of vocational education fund

State board of education to appropriate money for teaching agriculture trades and industries, and home economics only on the basis of an equal tribution by each community; instruction to be organized under provis acceptable to the Federal Board for Vocational Education. Ch. 171, Mar. 23, 1917

Nevada: Accepting the provisions of the Smith-Hughes Act of Congress viding Federal aid for vocational education.

State board of education designated for the purposes of said act. treasurer made custodian of funds. Ch. 209, Mar. 24, 1917.

New Hampshire: Accepting the provisions of the Smith-Hughes Act of gress providing Federal aid for vocational education.

State board for vocational education created. To consist of governor, super intendent of public instruction, president of the New Hampshire College Agriculture and the Mechanic Arts, ex officio, and two members appointed by governor with consent of the council. State treasurer to be custodian funds. Ch. 226, Apr. 19, 1917.

New Jersey: Supplementing ch. 294, Acts of 1913, relating to vocational education.

ppropriates $60,000 annually for vocational education.
Ch. 76, Mar. 16, 1916.

w Jersey: Amending sec. 25, ch. 294, Acts of 1913, providing for voca- al education.

imits amount expended by State for such education to $80,000 in one year amount annually appropriated by legislature. Ch. 102, Mar. 16, 1916.

ew Jersey: Appropriating $40,000 for further carrying out the provisions ch. 294, Acts of 1913, providing for vocational training.
Ch. 160, Mar. 17, 1916.

ew Jersey: Authorizing cities to acquire lands for schools for industrial cation. Ch. 113, Mar. 24, 1917.

New Jersey: Accepting the provisions of the Smith-Hughes Act of Congress oviding Federal aid for vocational education.

State board of education designated for the purposes of said act. State asurer to be custodian of funds. Appropriation. Ch. 119, Mar. 24, 1917.

New Jersey: Providing for the proportionate payment of funds for voca- nal schools when the amount legally applied for exceeds State appropria- on for such schools and the amount certified for such schools by the com- issioner of education. Ch. 165, Mar. 31, 1917.

New Jersey: See also L (i), Manual and industrial education.

New York: Accepting the provisions of the Smith-Hughes Act of Congress roviding Federal aid for vocational education.

Regents of the University of the State of New York designated as board or the purposes of said act. State treasurer to be custodian of funds.
Ch. 576, May 21, 1917.

New York: See also L (c), Physical education.

North Carolina: Accepting the provisions of the Smith-Hughes Act of Con- ress providing Federal aid for vocational education.

State board of vocational education to consist of State superintendent, presi- ent of State Agricultural and Mechanical College, and State director of agri- ultural extension. Ch. 95, Mar. 1, 1917.

North Carolina: Making the State treasurer custodian of the State's share f the Federal funds received under the Smith-Hughes Act.
Ch. 270, Mar. 7, 1917.

Ohio: Creating a State board of education and accepting the provisions of the Smith-Hughes Act of Congress providing Federal aid for vocational education.

Said board to consist of superintendent of public instruction and six persons appointed by governor; not more than three appointive members to be from same political party. Terms of appointive members, six years, two appointed every two years after first appointments. Board to cooperate with Federal Government in administration of vocational education. State treasurer to be custodian of funds. S. B. No. 139, p. 579, Mar. 30, 1917.

Oklahoma: Accepting the provisions of the Smith-Hughes Act of Congress providing Federal aid for vocational education.

"State board of vocational education" created. To consist of chairman of State board of education, president of board of agriculture, president of State university, president of Agricultural and Mechanical College, and one member appointed by the governor. Appointive member to be secretary at a salary of $2,000 per annum. State treasurer is designated as custodian of funds.
Ch. 155, Mar. 24, 1917.

Pennsylvania: Accepting the provisions of the Smith-Hughes Act of Congress providing Federal aid for vocational education.

State board of education designated for the purposes of said act. State treasurer to be custodian of funds. Act No. 281, July 11, 1917.

South Carolina: Accepting the provisions of the Smith-Hughes Act of Congress providing Federal aid for vocational education.

State board of education is constituted " State board of vocational training State treasurer to be custodian of funds. No. 14, Feb. 27, 1917.

South Carolina: To constitute the State board of education the South Carolina State board of vocational training, and to cooperate with the United States Government in this field. No. 44, Feb. 27, 1917.

South Dakota: Accepting the provisions of the Smith-Hughes Act of Congress providing Federal aid for vocational education.

State board of education created. To consist of superintendent of public instruction, president of university, president of State college of agriculture, and four persons appoined by the governor, two of whom shall be members of the faculty of a state normal school, one a superintendent or principal of a city or town school and one a county superintendent; said board designated for purposes of said Federal act. State treasurer is designated custodian of funds. Ch. 227, Mar. 10, 1917.

Tennessee: Accepting the provisions of the Smith-Hughes Act of Congress providing Federal aid for vocational education.

State board of education designated for the purposes of said act. State treasurer designated custodian of funds. Ch. 57, Mar. 31, 1917.

Texas: Accepting the benefits of the Smith-Hughes Act of Congress and making appropriation therefor. Ch. 45, First Called Session, June 5, 1917.

Utah: Accepting the provisions of the Smith-Hughes Act of Congress providing Federal aid for vocational education.

State board of education designated for the purposes of said act. State treasurer is made custodian of funds. Ch. 124, Mar. 17, 1917.

Vermont: Accepting the benefits of the Smith-Hughes Act of Congress providing Federal aid for vocational education.

State board of education designated for purposes of said act. State treasurer to be custodian of funds. No. 65, Mar. 23, 1917.

Vermont: See also B (e), State aid for elementary education.

West Virginia: Accepting the provisions of the Smith-Hughes Act of Congress providing Federal aid for vocational education.

State treasurer designated as custodian of funds. State board of regents designated as State board to carry out the provisions of said act so far as the same relates to the cooperation of the States and the Federal Government. Chapter 8, second extra session, became law without governor's signature.

West Virginia: Establishing agricultural, industrial, and vocational departments at the preparatory branch of the West Virginia University at Keyser and at other schools designated by State board of regents. Accepting the benefits of the Smith Hughes Act of Congress providing Federal aid for vocational education.

State board of regents is designated as board for the purposes of said act: State board of control to have general supervision of finances of "Agricultural, industrial, and vocational department." (No mention of State treasurer as custodian of funds.) Ch. 70, Feb. 16, 1917.

Wisconsin: Amending subsecs. 1 and 4 of sec. 553p-6 of the statutes, relating to the industrial, continuation, commercial, and evening schools, and the aid that may be granted to cities, towns, and villages maintaining such schools.

Omits provision that not more than 45 such schools (exclusive of Stout Institute) shall receive State aid under the act. If State appropriation is not sufficient to pay sums demanded as aid, said appropriation shall be apportioned in ratio of amount available to sums demanded. Ch. 813, June 29, 1915.

Wisconsin: Creating subdiv. 4 of subsec. 3 of sec. 553p–1 of the statutes d amending subsec. 1 of 553p-3 and subsecs. 1 and 4 of sec. 553p-6, relating to dustrial education and to the duties of the State board of industrial education.

Empowers said board to employ assistants for the development of indus- ial education; State superintendent to direct the activities of such assistants. ovides for "instruction in trades and industries, commerce and household arts part-time day, all-day and evening classes" and such other branches (indus- ial) as may be enumerated in the act. State aid not to exceed in any year 0,000 for any one city of the first class, and not to exceed $10,000 for any her city, town, or village. Ch. 515, Aug. 9, 1915.

Wisconsin: Amending subsec. 3, sec. 553p–4, Wisconsin Statutes, increasing e tax rate in cities for the support of industrial and continuation schools.

Increases maximum rate that may be levied from one-half to three-fourths of mill. Ch. 436, June 15, 1917.

Wisconsin: Amending certain sections and subsections of the statutes relat- g to industrial education.

State board of industrial education reorganized to consist of nine members pointed by the governor—three employers of labor, three skilled employees t having employing or discharging power, and three farmers—and State perintendent of public instruction and a member of industrial commission. ovisions of Smith-Hughes Act accepted. Board of industrial education desig- ted for purposes of said act. State treasurer to be custodian of funds. alifications of teachers in industrial schools to be prescribed by board of in- strial education. Said board may employ clerks, stenographers, etc.
Ch. 494, June 26, 1917.

Wisconsin: Amending subsecs. 6 and 7, sec. 553, p. 3, and creating subsec. , sec. 553, p. 3, Wisconsin Statutes, relating to industrial education.

Authorizes industrial boards of industrial education to provide buildings, ounds, etc., for industrial schools. Teachers for such schools shall be em- yed and their qualifications determined by said board, with the approval of e State board of industrial education. Local boards may supply other neces- ry technical advisors, experts, and skilled persons. Students may be em- yed for office work. Contracts for work done or supplies and material fur- shed are regulated by this act. Ch. 675, July 16, 1917.

Wisconsin: See also H (f), Compulsory attendance.

Wyoming: Accepting the provisions of the Smith-Hughes Act of Congress oviding Federal aid for vocational education.

State board of education designated for the purposes of said act. State easurer to be custodian of funds. Ch. 99, Feb. 20, 1917.

Wyoming: See also A (b1). State boards.

O (b). Agricultural Schools.

See also L (j), Agriculture.

Arkansas: See L (j), Agriculture.

Georgia: Appropriating $16,000 for the purpose of rebuilding and equipping e academic building of the Third District Agricultural and Mechanical School Americus. No. 22, p. 8, Aug. 2, 1915.

Georgia: "An act to establish and organize a college in the town of Craw- rdville, Taliaferro County, Ga., as a branch of the University of Georgia, to known as Alexander H. Stephens Institute, and for other purposes."

Accepts from Stephens Monumental Association a tract of about 12 acres of nd with buildings thereon, the former home of Alexander H. Stephens. Pro- des board of trustees to be subject to trustees of university. No State appro- iation to be made. No. 330, p. 98, Aug. 8, 1916.

Georgia: Providing for the establishment and maintenance of an agricultural, industrial, and normal school for training colored teachers; making said school a branch of the State university. No. 244, p. 195, Aug. 21, 1917.

Georgia: Providing for the establishment and maintenance of an industrial and agricultural school in the twelfth agricultural district of the State. No. 254, p. 191, Aug. 21, 1917.

Massachusetts: Providing for the establishment and maintenance of an independent agricultural school in the County of Norfolk. Ch. 189, Apr. 21, 1917.

Massachusetts: An act to authorize cities to maintain schools of agriculture and horticulture.

Any city which accepts the provisions of this act may establish and maintain schools for instructing families and individuals, by means of day, part-time or evening classes, in gardening, fruit-growing, floriculture, poultry keeping, animal husbandry, and other branches of agriculture and horticulture. Location and organization of such schools and instruction given therein must have approval of State board of education. Cities to vote on question at next [illegible] election. Ch. 185, May 2, 1917.

Massachusetts: Amending paragraph 2, sec. 9, ch. 471, Acts of 1911, relative to State aid to district agricultural schools.

Strikes out provision that annual expenditure for part payment of teachers' salaries in agricultural departments of high schools shall not exceed $10,000. Ch. 61, Mar. 12, 1917.

Michigan: Providing for the establishment of rural agricultural schools; for consolidating three or more rural schools in any township or school district; for the organization of school districts in certain cases; for teaching agriculture, manual training, and home economics therein, and providing State aid for the maintenance thereof. Act No. 226, May 10, 1917.

Minnesota: Authorizing the University of Minnesota to exchange certain lands belonging to it and heretofore acquired for use in connection with the agricultural school at Morris for other lands more suitable for use in connectin with said agricultural school. Ch. 329, Apr. 17, 1917.

Nebraska: Establishing a school of irrigation in Scotts Bluff County. Ch. 230, Mar. 23, 1917.

Nebraska: See also O (a), Industrial education, general.

Nevada: Providing for the establishment of county agricultural farms and granting State aid therefor.

County commissioners authorized to establish such farms. Conducted under agreement with State university. Ch. 198, Mar. 24, 1917.

Nevada: See also O (a), Industrial education, general.

New Hampshire: Amending ch. 176, Acts of 1915, relating to the management and control of State institutions.

New Hampshire College of Agriculture and the Mechanic Arts is exempted from control of the board of trustees of State institutions. Ch. 112, Apr. 3, 1917.

New York: Amending the education law, in relation to the New York State school of agriculture on Long Island.

As amended, act provides that a director or teacher can be removed only "on charges duly proven to the satisfaction of said board of trustees." Ch. 482, Mar. 3, 1915

New York: Amending the education law relative to agricultural schools.

Adds article 40–a to said law. Instruction in such schools to be under the general supervision of the State commissioner of education. Ch. 207. Apr. 19. 1917.

North Dakota: Amending sec. 1456, Compiled Laws, 1913, relating to the at maintenance by county and State of county agricultural and training ools.

ncreases from $3,000 to $5,000, the maximum amount which the State will y. H. B. 112, p. 106, Pop. Ed., Mar. 10, 1917.

North Dakota: See also O (b), Local bonds and indebtedness.

Ohio: Establishing a State agricultural school at New Lyme, Ashtabula unty, and authorizing the board of trustees of the Ohio State University to ceive and control certain property for the use and benefit of said school.
H. B. No. 413, p. 320, May 26, 1915.

Pennsylvania: See A (b1), State boards.

Philippines: See T (c), Schools for the blind.

South Carolina: See P (c), State universities and colleges.

Vermont: An act to create the Theodore N. Vail Agricultural School and oviding for the management of the State schools of agriculture.

Theodore N. Vail Agricultural School and Farm established at Lyndon. Said hool and agricultural school at Randolph are constituted the special agri-ultural schools of the State. Board of trustees of such schools shall consist f commissioner of agriculture, the dean of the State agricultural college, and ree members appointed by the governor. Said trustees shall have the general are, management, and control of all schools of agriculture and farms main-ained or in any way aided by the State. Appointive members shall each eceive $4 per day and expenses when in the performance of their duties; rustees shall report biennially to the legislature. They may receive appropria-ions, donations, and bequests. Treasurer of State shall receive funds for such chools and, on order of auditor, pay the same to the treasurer of the trustees. um of $20,000 annually appropriated to Theodore N. Vail School.
Act No. 76, Mar. 31, 1915.

Vermont: Making the commissioner of agriculture director of the State gricultural schools. No. 17, p. 17, Mar. 3, 1917.

Vermont: See also B (e), State aid for elementary education; N (a), High schools.

Wisconsin: Repealing subsecs. 4 and 5 of sec. 172–63 and sec. 5531–2 and amending subsecs. 1 and 3 of sec. 5531 of the Statutes, relating to county schools of agricuture and domestic science and making appropriations.

Repealed subsections of section 172–63 appropriated annually $45,000 for county agricultural school buildings and necessary sums as State aid for general instruction in county agricultural schools. Repealed section 553–12 provided for State aid to county schools of agriculture. Amended section provides that State superintendent shall not place on approved list more than 7 schools (was 10 under old law) for State aid. Subsection 3 provides State aid for such a school equal to amount expended for legally qualified teachers employed for at least eight months. Ch. 482, July 29, 1915.

Wisconsin: Authorizing county boards to discontinue any county school of agriculture and domestic science. Ch. 364, June 8, 1917.

Wisconsin: See also O (a), Industrial education, general.

O (c). Trade Schools.

Arkansas: See L (j), Agriculture.

Colorado: See A (d), District boards and officers.

Connecticut: Relating to trade and vocational schools.

Sate board of education may continue to maintain schools already established and in addition may establish public day and continuation schools, part-time schools and evening schools, for instruction in the arts and practices of trades and vocations; said board may make rules and regulations for such schools, but no person under 14 years old may be admitted. Board may State funds for support; may appoint and remove teachers; shall repor ally to governor; may arrange with manufacturing and mechanical es ments for opportunity for pupils to practice their trades. Towns and may vote money for the support of such schools. Ch. 263, May 16,

Hawaii: Creating a trade and vocational school at Lahainaluna.
Act.100, Apr. 18,

Louisiana: See A (a), Administration and supervision, general.

Maine: See M (c), Evening schools.

Massachusetts: Amending ch. 106, Acts of 1912, relating to classes in tical arts for women.

Authorizes cities and towns to establish both day and evening classes. If classes only or evening classes only are established, they shall be open to over 16 years old; if both are established, day classes shall be open to over 16, and evening classes shall be open to those over 17 who are during the day. Ch. 266, May 20,

Massachusetts: Providing for the establishment and maintenance of pendent vocational school in the county of Hampshire.

Provides that the qualified voters of county shall vote on question of lishing such a school. Ch. 225, May 5,

Massachusetts: An act relative to cooperative courses in public school to employment of pupils in cooperating agencies.

Permits children between 14 and 16 years of age who are in cooperative to be employed for part time by cooperating agencies. Ch. 95, Apr. 3,

Nebraska: See O (a), Industrial education, general.

Nevada: See O (a), Industrial education, general.

Oregon: Repealing ch. 41, Acts of 1913.

Repealed chapter authorized directors of school districts having 20,000 habitants or more to provide trade schools for dependent girls.
Ch. 169, Feb. 23,

Pennsylvania: See A (b1), State boards.

Vermont: See B (e), State aid for elementary education.

West Virginia: Amending sec. 189, ch. 45, code of 1913, relating to Montgomery preparatory branch of the West Virginia University.

Said branch changed to a trade school to be known as the West Trades School. Ch. 84, Feb. 24,

Wisconsin: See H (f), Compulsory attendance; O (a), Industrial general; O (b), Agricultural schools.

O (d). Continuation Schools.

See also M (c), Evening schools.

California: Amending sec. 1858 of the Political Code, relating to the tionment of the elementary school funds and the counting of attendance in mentary and secondary schools.

Apportionment made on the basis of average attendance. Credit in tion to number of minutes attended is allowed for attendance upon special time classes. Ch. 719, May 31, 1917.

California: Amending sec. 1532 of the Political Code, relating to the and duties of the superintendent of public instruction, and repealing sec. of said code.

Requires State superintendent to report to State controller the average tendance in special day and evening classes and part-time vocational classes well as in regular day and evening schools). Ch. 733, May 31, 1917.

olorado: See A (d), District boards and officers.

onnecticut: See O (c), Trade schools.

assachusetts: See O (c), Trade schools.

ebraska: See O (a), Industrial education, general.

ew York: See U (e), Schools for dependents and delinquents.

ennsylvania: See A (b1), State boards; H (g), Child labor.

Wisconsin: Amending sec. 553p–7 of the statutes, relating to industrial ication.

erson over 14 years old, who is employed in any city, town, or village mainning an industrial school and who resides in another city, town, or village ich maintains such a school, may attend such school in municipality where ployed with approval of local board of industrial education, and municipality ose school he attends may collect tuition fee from municipality of his resince. Ch. 238, June 11, 1915.

Wisconsin: Regulating the attendance of minors at continuation schools. Ch. 674, July 14, 1917.

Wisconsin: See also H (f), Compulsory attendance; O (a), Industrial edution, general.

P. HIGHER EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS.

(a) General.

Arizona: Providing for the management and control of State institutions.

Creates a commission of three members. Appointed by governor with conent of the senate; not more than two to be of same political party; salary, 3,000 each; expenses paid. Educational institutions controlled: for deaf and lind; State industrial school; Pioneers' Home and all State charitable. penal nd reformatory institutions. Regents of university, normal school boards, irectors of Pioneer Historical Society, curators of State library and curators f State law and legislative reference library are made subject, in all matters ffecting the receipt or expenditure of funds, to superior authority and direcion, of said commission. Ch. 89, Mar. 20, 1917.

Colorado: Requiring presidents of governing boards of State educational nstitutions to make annual reports to governor.

Applies to presidents of governing boards of State university, the School of Mines, State Agricultural College, Fort Lewis School of Agriculture, State normal schools, and School for Deaf and Blind. Ch. 125, Apr. 12, 1915.

Kentucky: An act to amend charters of cities of the first class and to authorize such cities to support by the levy of a tax or otherwise a municipal university.

The general council of any city of the first class (Louisville) may levy for the support of a university not less than 1 cent nor more than 3 cents on $100 taxable property. Council may devote to such purpose any other funds not derived from taxes levied for special purposes. Chief work of such university must be instruction in advance of high-school course. Council may set apart a site for university. Ch. 52, Mar. 23, 1916.

North Carolina: Authorizing the charitable, educational, and other institutions of the State to take land by condemnation proceedings. Ch. 132, Mar. 5, 1917.

Oklahoma: Authorizing the State board of education and the State board of agriculture to fix and collect entrance, library, and laboratory fees for the various State educational institutions. Ch. 151, Mar. 13, 1915.

Oregon: Providing for a committee of the house and senate to invest the matter of the support of the higher educational institutions of the S and to report on the same at the next session of the legislature.

H. C. R. No. 9, Feb. 23, 1915

Vermont: Providing that no student of a college or seminary of learn shall lose his legal residence at home while attending such institution.

Act No. 1 (sec. 6), Jan. 30, 1917

Vermont: Allowing towns to vote scholarships to deserving students.

Town may vote one or more such scholarships for deserving college stude

No. 102, Mar. 3, 1917

Washington: Amending sec. 9099, Remington and Ballinger's Annota Codes and Statutes, relating to exemption of schools and colleges from taxa

Institutions of college grade may have exempt from taxation not more th 40 acres of land used exclusively for school and campus purposes (was acres); no one religious denomination shall have more than one such exemption.

Ch. 146, Mar. 18, 1915

P (b). Finance; Lands; Support.

Alabama: Providing for granting a free scholarship in each of cert schools of the State, to the value of $100 each year, upon the donation to the State by the United Daughters of the Confederacy of Alabama of the sum $1,250 for securing each such scholarship.

One scholarship each is provided for the State university, Alabama Polytechnic Institute, Alabama Girls' Technical Institute, and four "Clas normal schools.

Act No. 101, p. 140, Feb. 24, 1915

California: Amending ch. 582, Acts of 1911, creating "the State univer fund."

Extends for two years the provision that such fund shall not in any yea exceed by 7 per cent the fund of the preceding year. Strikes out provisi that at least one-fourth of fund shall be set aside for buildings.

Ch. 222, May 17, 1915

California: Amending sec. 9, ch. 225, of the Acts of 1903, regulating th sale of commercial fertilizers.

Adds provision that moneys received under this act may be used for building purposes at the University of California.

Ch. 34, Apr. 10, 1915

California: Authorizing the State to become indebted in the sum of $1,800,0 for the purpose of providing buildings at the State university.

Referendum Measure, Approved Nov 3, 1914

California: Amending act of Apr. 25, 1911, relating to the support of th University of California.

Allows fund to increase 7 per cent over amount for immediately preceding year until the seventy-second fiscal year is reached.

Ch. 415, May 15, 1917

Colorado: Levying a tax for the support and maintenance of the Universi of Colorado and for the construction of buildings for the use of said institutio

In addition to tax already provided, there shall be levied annually fi and one-half hundredths of 1 mill on the dollar.

Ch. 171, Apr. 12, 1915

Colorado: Levying a tax for the construction, equipment, and furnishing o buildings for the institutions of higher education of Colorado.

In addition to levy now authorized, an annual State tax of three-tenths o 1 mill on the dollar is provided to continue 10 years.

Ch. 130, Mar. 24, 1917

Florida: Empowering the board of county commissioners of each county to ate scholarships at the agricultural department of the University of Florida; oviding for the appointments thereto and making an appropriation to main- n the same. Ch. 6837 (No. 81), June 5, 1915.

Georgia: Proposing an amendment to the constitution to exempt from taxa- n the endowments of colleges, incorporated academies, and seminaries of rning, provided the same are not invested in real estate.
No. 203, p. 39, Aug. 21, 1917.

Illinois: Appropriating $5,000,000 for the biennium beginning July 1, 1915, r the University of Illinois. H. B. 963, p. 58, June 28, 1915.

Illinois: Appropriating for the biennium beginning July 1, 1917, the sum of ,800,000 for the use and maintenance of the University of Illinois.
H. B. 992, p. 199, June 26, 1917.

Nevada: Authorizing the State to transfer to the different funds of the niversity of Nevada certain bonds and moneys, and authorizing the board of gents of the university to ascertain the amount of bonds and moneys so to e transferred. Ch. 215, Mar. 24, 1915.

New Hampshire: Appropriating $15,000 annually for two years to Dart- outh College.

Such appropriation to include 10 scholarships for New Hampshire students.
Ch. 257, Apr. 19, 1917.

New Hampshire: Appropriating to the New Hampshire College of Agricul- ure and the Mechanic Arts $100,000 for improvements and $13,156.32 for co-operative agricultural extension work under the provisions of the Smith-Hughes Act. Ch. 274, Apr. 19, 1917.

New York: An act for the relief of pupils who are qualified for university cholarships except for failure to apply for college entrance diplomas.
Ch. 48, Mar. 12, 1917.

North Carolina: Providing for the issuance of State bonds, not to exceed $3,000,000 in amount, for the permanent enlargement and improvement of the State's educational and charitable institutions. Ch. 154, Mar. 5, 1917.

Washington: Fixing State tax levy for higher education.

Following levies made for States institutions: University, seventy-four one-hundredths of 1 mill; State college, forty-five one-hundredths of 1 mill; Belling-ham Normal School, fifteen and one-fifth one-hundredths of 1 mill; Cheney Normal School, thirteen one-hundredths of 1 mill; Ellensburg Normal School, ten and four-fifths one-hundredths of 1 mill. Ch. 95, Mar. 12, 1917.

Wisconsin: See B (c), Permanent State school funds.

P (c). State Universities and Colleges.

Alabama: Amending sec. 1889 of the Code of 1907, relating to the medical department of the University of Alabama.

Provides that said department shall remain at Mobile so long as it can be maintained there as a Class A school of medicine as defined by the council on medical education of the American Medical Association, otherwise trustees of University may remove said institution to Tuscaloosa or elsewhere.
Act No. 89, p. 133, Feb. 18, 1915.

Alabama: See also P (b), Finance, lands, support.

Arizona: Establishing a bureau of mines under the direction of the board of regents of the University of Arizona. Ch. 17, Mar. 4, 1915.

Arizona: See also P (a), Higher institutions, general.

Arkansas: Appropriating for the maintenance of the University of Arkansas.

Consents to the provisions of the Smith-Lever Act. Act [illegible]. Mar. [illegible]

California: See F (a), Teachers' contracts, duties, etc.; M (e), University extension—public lectures; T (c), Schools for the blind.

Colorado: Levying a tax for the support and maintenance of the State University.

In addition to levy now authorized, an annual State tax of eight-hundredths of 1 mill is provided. Ch. 140, Mar. 24, [illegible]

Colorado: See also P (a), Higher institutions, general.

Delaware: See G (d), Teachers' institutes and summer schools.

Florida: Establishing a State museum at the University of Florida and a natural history and ethnological survey of the State. Ch. 7368, May [illegible]

Florida: See also M (e), University extension—public lectures.

Georgia: State highway department to consist of State prison commission, State geologist, dean of the college of civil engineering of the State university, and the professor of highway engineering at the Georgia School of Technology.
No. 413, p. 125, Aug. 16, [illegible]

Georgia: See also O (b), Agricultural schools.

Illinois: Amending sec. 173 of "An act to establish and maintain a system of free schools," approved June 12, 1909, as amended, relating to scholarships in the State university.

Exempts from entrance examination holders of scholarships who are graduates of schools accredited by the university. H. B. 78, p. 757, June 11, [illegible]

Illinois: See also M (e), University extension—public lectures; P (b), Finance, lands, support.

Indiana: Authorizing the State to sell certain lands in Lawrence County to Indiana University. Ch. 24, Feb. 25, 1915

Indiana: See also T (c), Schools for the blind.

Iowa: Authorizing the State board of education to construct an armory at the State university and at the State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts. Ch. 261, Apr. 21, 1917

Iowa: Authorizing the State board of education to establish and maintain as a part of the State university the Iowa Child-Welfare Research Station.
Ch. 282, Apr. 21, 1917

Kansas: Providing for the establishment at the State university of an information bureau to procure and disseminate financial, industrial, commercial, and other statistical information of the State of Kansas and to encourage investment and immigration. Ch. 53, Mar. 24, 1915

Kansas: Authorizing the University of Kansas to certify public accountants.
Ch. 1, Mar. 24, 1915

Kansas: Prohibiting the employment in State educational institutions of relatives of the heads of governing bodies of such institutions.
Ch. 301, Mar. 8, 1917

Kansas: Constitutional amendment providing for a permanent income for the State educational institutions.

Authorizes legislature to levy a permanent tax for such institutions.
Ch. 352, Mar. 10, 1917

Kansas: See also A (b1), State boards.

Kentucky: See L (j), Agriculture.

Louisiana: Directing the secretary of state to deliver to the library of the State university certain public documents to be exchanged for material relating to government, and providing for the classification and use of such material.
Act No. 147, July 5, 1916

Michigan: Making an appropriation for the construction of a new library ilding for the University of Michigan, and providing a tax to meet the same.

Appropriates $350,000. Act No. 190, May 11, 1915.

Minnesota: Granting free tuition at the State university to honorably disarged soldiers of the State who were called in 1916 for Mexican border vice. Ch. 279, Apr. 17, 1917.

Minnesota: Creating the office of "comptroller" for the State university, thorizing the appointment of an incumbent thereof, prescribing his powers d duties; providing a budget system for the fiscal affairs of the State univer-y; the payment of the salaries of officers, teachers, and employees of the iversity and the purchase of and payment for material and supplies for the iversity and the various departments thereof. Ch. 486, Apr. 21, 1917.

Minnesota: See also M (e), University extension—public lectures; O (b), gricultural schools.

Missouri: See M (e), University extension—public lectures.

Montana: Equalizing the opportunity for higher education to the youth of e State by authorizing the payment of traveling fare of students attending e institutions of the University of Montana.

Sate board of education authorized to refund such fare of each student less 5. Sum of $10.000 for biennium. Ch. 123, Mar. 7, 1917.

Montana: See also G (c), County and local normal schools.

Nebraska: Amending sec. 7084, Revised Statutes of 1913, relating to colleges f the State university, adding thereto a college of pharmacy.

Ch. 127, Apr. 10, 1915.

Nebraska: See also A (b2), State officers; M (e), University extension—ublic lectures; N (a), High schools.

Nevada: Providing for the consolidation of the various public-service departents of the University of Nevada under the heading "Public service division f the University of Nevada," and providing for a uniform method of adminisration and control, and for the making of rules and regulations whereby the ork of these departments may be most effective, and naming the departments omprehended herein.

Departments comprehended: (1) Analytical laboratory, (2) hygienic laboraory, (3) food and drug control, (4) weights and measures, (5) agricultural xtension, (6) veterinary control, (7) agricultural experiment station, (8) ngineering experimentation. Ch. 98, Mar. 11, 1915.

Nevada: Establishing at the University of Nevada a State veterinary control ervice. Ch. 96, Mar. 11, 1915.

Nevada: Empowering the board of regents of the University of Nevada to stablish emeritus positions, and prescribing the conditions and qualifications of those who shall benefit thereunder. Ch. 204, Mar. 24, 1915.

Nevada: Amending sec. 4641, Revised Laws, 1912, relating to the powers and duties of the regents of the State university.

Defines qualifications required of president of university.

Ch. 50, Mar. 8, 1917.

Nevada: Appropriating $2,000 for the aid of the work of the student loan fund of the State Federation of Women's Clubs. Ch. 69, Mar. 12, 1917.

Nevada: Providing for the publication of bulletins, circulars, and periodicals of the agricultural extension division of the University of Nevada.

Ch. 90, Mar. 14, 1917.

Nevada: Authorizing the University of Nevada to purchase an experiment farm. Ch. 145, Mar. 22, 1917.

Nevada: Amending "An act relating to the State university and ma properly connected therewith," approved Feb. 7, 1887.

Board of regents to consist of five members elected at general election; te 10 years, one elected every 2 years. Ch. 180, Mar. 24, 1917

Nevada: See also F (a), Teachers' contracts, duties, etc.; M (e), Univer extension, public lectures; O (b), Agricultural schools; Q (d), Mining sch

New Jersey: See Q (b), Agricultural colleges.

North Carolina: Increasing the number of trustees of the State univer

Number increased from 81 to 101. Ch. 47, Feb. 21, 1917

North Dakota: See A (b1), State boards; B (d), State taxation for a purposes; G (b), State normal schools.

Ohio: Providing for the erection of a woman's building at the Ohio St University. H. B. No. 452, p. 51, Mar. 24, 1917

Ohio: See also M (e), University extension, public lectures; O (b), Agri tural schools.

Oklahoma: Creating and legalizing revolving funds at State institutions a providing for additions or accretions thereto and for the maintenance of su funds and for the disbursement thereof. Ch. 227, Mar. 28, 1917

Oklahoma: Relating to dormitories now or hereafter located in any of th educational institutions of the State; their use; defining who is entitled to th privileges of rooming therein; the apportionment of the dormitory capacity o space among the several counties of the State; providing for reasonable charg for the rooms or rooming privileges and the converting of such charge into th State treasury. Ch. 248, Mar. 26, 1917

Oklahoma: See also O (a), Industrial education, general; R (b), Edu tional corporations.

Philippines: Amending Act No. 1870 by authorizing the board of regen of the University of the Philippines to receive in trust legacies, gifts, a donations of real and personal property of any kind.

Act. No. 2483, Feb. 5, 1915

Porto Rico: Authorizing school boards to provide scholarships in the no mal department of the University of Porto Rico for certain persons who des to prepare for teaching in rural schools. No. 7, Apr. 12, 1917

South Carolina: An act relating to beneficiary scholarships and free tuiti in the institutions of the State for higher education, and to define the duties o the State board of charities and corrections with reference thereto.

Directs said board to investigate and report on the "financial condition o all persons, their parents, guardians, or other persons liable in law for the support and maintenance of such persons, who hold or apply for beneficiar scholarships or obtain or apply for free tuition in any of the State institutio for higher education in this State." Act No. 505, Mar. 25, 1916

South Carolina: Prohibiting colleges and institutions of learning, supported in whole or in part by the State, from giving enrollment to applicants fro without the State in preference to those residing within the State.

No. 175, Feb. 27, 1917

South Dakota: See O (a), Industrial education, general.

Tennessee: Amending the charter of the University of Tennessee by provi ing for the appointment of two trustees from the city of Memphis.

By reason of the existence of departments of said university in said city, the governor is directed to appoint two additional trustees from said city.

Ch. 26, Mar. 19, 1915

Tennessee: Providing for the issuance of State bonds to the amount of 1,000,000 for the development, maintainance, etc., of the University of Tennessee.
Ch. 35, Mar. 20, 1917.

Tennessee: See also M (e), University extension, public lectures.

Texas: Proposing an amendment to the constitution of the State of Texas providing for the separation of the University of Texas and the Agricultural and Mechanical College.
H. J. R. No. 34, p. 291, Apr. 7, 1915.

Utah: Amending sec. 2309, Compiled Laws of 1907, relating to fees received at the University of Utah.

Requires such fees to be turned over at the end of each month to the State Treasurer.
Ch. 30, Mar. 15, 1915.

Utah: See also A (b1), State boards.

Vermont: Amending sec. 2, No. 83, acts of 1965, relating to trustees of the University of Vermont and State Agricultural College.

Terms of office of all such trustees to end on January 31.
No. 67, Feb. 21, 1917.

Vermont: See also M (e), University extension, public lectures.

Washington: An act for the support of the University of Washington and relating to the erection and equipment of two buildings at the university, making appropriations therefor, and providing a system of student fees and creating a building fund.

Building fund created. Appropriates $150,000 for each of two buildings. Prescribes fees to be paid by students and prescribes disposition of such fees.
Ch. 66, Mar. 15, 1915.

Washington: Establishing entrance requirements of the University of Washington, the State College of Washington, and the State normal schools; establishing the courses of instruction in the university and the State college; authorizing the State board of education to prescribe courses of study for the State normal schools; providing for awarding certificates and diplomas by the State normal schools; creating a joint board of higher curricula and defining its powers and duties, and repealing conflicting acts. Ch. 10, Feb. 10, 1917.

Washington: See also A (b1), State boards; E (e), Recognition of normal and college diplomas; P (b), Finance, lands, support.

West Virginia: Amending secs. 173 and 174, ch. 45, Code of West Virginia of 1913, relating to cadets of the military department of the West Virginia University.

Fixes number of such cadets at not exceeding 600. Tuition free and books and stationery to the value of $15 annually for each cadet.
Ch. 65, Feb. 20, 1915.

West Virginia: Amending sec. 173, ch. 45, West Virginia Code, as amended by ch. 65, acts of 1915, relating to cadets in the military department of the State university.

Strikes out provision that not exceeding 600 cadets shall be admitted to the military department.
Ch. 69, Feb. 15, 1917.

West Virginia: See also E (b), Teachers' certificates, general.

Wisconsin: Repealing sec. 388 of the statutes and creating a new section to be numbered sec. 388, relating to tuition for nonresident students at the university.

Exempts residents of the State; fixes tuition for nonresidents at $124 a year; regents may prescribe rates for extra studies. Regents may remit tuition fees to not exceeding 5 per cent of nonresidents for merit.
Ch. 547, Aug. 17, 1915.

Wisconsin: Amending sec. 386 of the statutes, relating to the departments of the State university.

Provides that the medical school shall consist of coures of instruction customarily covered in the first two years of a medical curriculum.
Ch. 334, July 2, 1915.

Wisconsin: Amending sec. 388, Wisconsin Statutes, relating to tuition of nonresident students at the university.

Extends free tuition to any student whose parents have been bona fide residents of the State for one year next preceding the beginning of any semester for which such student enters the university. Ch. 359, June 8, 1917.

Wisconsin: Authorizing the board of regents of the State university to establish and maintain a training school for public service.
Ch. 412, June 14, 1917.

Wisconsin: Amending certain sections of the statutes transferring certain functions of the University of Wisconsin to the department of agriculture.
Ch. 593, July 7, 1917.

Wisconsin: Amending subsec. (4), sec. 20.40, and creating sec. 36.20 and a new paragraph of subsec. (3), sec. 20.41 of the statutes, authorizing the University of Wisconsin to conduct investigational and demonstrational work in order to determine the most efficient and economical methods of land clearing.
Ch. 658, July 5, 1917.

Wisconsin: See also A (b1), State boards.

Wyoming: Providing for the levy of an annual tax for permanent buildings and improvements of the University of Wyoming.

Provides for such purpose a tax of one-eighth of a mill in addition to other taxes or appropriations. Ch. 42, Feb. 20, 1915.

Wyoming: See also A (b1), State boards; B (b), State school lands; M (e), University extension, public lectures.

P (d). Carnegie Fund.

Q. PROFESSIONAL AND HIGHER TECHNICAL EDUCATION.

(a) Teachers' Colleges and Normal Schools.

See G (b), State normal schools; P (c), State universities and colleges.

Q (b). Agricultural Colleges.

Alabama: See M (e), University extension—public lectures; P (b), Finance, lands, support.

Alaska: Accepting the grants of land and money for the benefit of an agricultural college and school of mines for the Territory of Alaska.
Ch. 34, May 3, 1917.

Alaska: Providing for the establishment of the Alaska Agriculture College and School of Mines in accordance with the provisions of the act of Congress approved Mar. 4, 1915. Ch. 62, May 3, 1917.

Colorado: Levying a tax for the support and maintenance of the State Agricultural College and for the construction of buildings for the use of said institution.

In addition to the levy already authorized by law, a tax of two and three-quarter hundredths of 1 mill shall be levied annually. Ch. 5, Apr. 12, 1915.

Colorado: Providing a fund for the maintenance and support of the Fort Lewis School of Agriculture, Mechanical, and Household Arts at Hesperus.

Provides for an annual State tax of two one-hundredths of 1 mill on the dollar. Ch. 91, Apr. 12, 1915.

Colorado: Providing a fund for the maintenance of the experiment station at the State Agricultural College.

Provides for a State tax of two and one-quarter-hundredths of 1 mill on the dollar. Ch. 2, Apr. 12, 1915.

Colorado: Establishing an agricultural experiment station at or near Greeley. Ch. 1, Apr. 17, 1915.

Colorado: Levying a tax for the support and maintenance of the State Agricultural College.

In addition to levy now authorized an annual State tax of four-hundredths of 1 mill on the dollar is provided. Ch. 127, Mar. 24, 1917.

Colorado: See also P (a), Higher institutions, general.

Connecticut: Amending ch. 176, Public Acts of 1913, relating to trustees of Connecticut Agricultural College.

Appointive members appointed by governor. Formerly appointed by Senate. Ch. 139, Apr. 13, 1917.

Connecticut: Establishing scholarships at the State Agricultural College.

Trustees of college may establish at least two scholarships of $100 each for each county. Ch. 407, May 16, 1917.

Delaware: Appropriating $5,000 annually for the agricultural experiment station at Delaware College. Ch. 190, Mar. 15, 1915.

Delaware: Providing for the expenses of certain public-school teachers of the State in attendance upon the summer school for teachers at Delaware College.

Every teacher who has taught for one year or more in the State and who declares his intention to continue so teaching shall be entitled to have his expenses of board and transportation paid. Teacher must attend entire session to receive benefits of this act, unless excused by president of college or director of summer school. Ch. 202, Apr. 2, 1917.

Delaware: Appropriating to Delaware College $7,890.77 for agricultural extension for two fiscal years beginning July 1, 1917.

Appropriation to secure benefits of Smith-Lever Act of Congress. Ch. 204, Apr. 2, 1917.

Delaware: Increasing the annual appropriation for State College for Colored Students.

Annual appropriation, $8,000. Ch. 208, Apr. 2, 1917.

Delaware: See also G (d), Teachers' institutes and summer schools.

Georgia: See P (c), State universities and colleges.

Indiana: Authorizing the Indiana Horticultural Society to turn over and surrender to the trustees of Purdue University its experimental orchard in Lawrence County, reserving certain rights therein to said society; providing for the control and management of said orchard by said university. Ch. 96, Acts of 1917.

Indiana: See also B (d), State taxation for school purposes; M (e), University extension—public lectures.

Iowa: See P (c), State universities and colleges.

Kansas: Placing dairy herds of State institutions under the supervisi professor of dairy husbandry of State agricultural college.
Ch. 390, Feb. 20, 1917

Kansas: See also A (b1), State boards; M (e), University extension— lectures; P (c), State universities and colleges.

Maryland: An act to direct and require the governor of the State of Ma land to appoint the same persons upon both the board of trustees of Maryland State College of Agriculture and the State board of agricultur that said boards will be one and the same. Ch. 225, Apr. 11, 191

Massachusetts: An act to establish the Mount Toby State Demonstr Forest and to provide for instruction therein by the Massachusetts Agr tural College. Ch. 234, May 19, 191

Massachusetts: Providing for experimental work by the Massachusetts Ag cultural College in the planting and growing of tobacco.
Ch. 25 (Resolves), Mar. 12, 1917

Michigan: Amending sec. 1, Act No. 232, Public Acts of 1901, as last amen by Act No. 266, Public Acts of 1907, providing aid for the Michigan Ag cultural College.

Increases from one-tenth mill to one-fifth mill on the dollar the State tax f the support of said college and experiment stations.
Act No. 114, Apr. 29, 191

Missouri: Amending secs. 11134 and 11141, Art. XVII, ch. 106, Revis Statutes of 1909, relating to the College of Agriculture and the School Mines.

"The leading object of said colleges shall be to teach such branches as related to agriculture and mechanic arts and mining, including military tics, and without excluding other scientific and classical studies, in order promote the liberal and practical education of the industrial classes in the eral pursuits and professions of life." Said colleges are authorized to con degrees "suitable to their designs and courses of study."
S. B. 522, p. 391, Mar. 23, 191

Nevada: Authorizing the board of regents of the University of Nevada lease a college farm and appropriating the sum of $10,000 therefor.
Ch. 229, Mar. 24, 1915

New Hampshire: See M (e), University extension, public lectures.

New Jersey: Giving additional title to the State Agricultural College.

Also designated the State University of New Jersey.
Ch. 32, Mar. 15, 1917

New Jersey: Relating to the State Agricultural College.

Board of visitors to consist of one member from each county, appointed governor with consent of senate. Ch. 40, Mar. 16, 1917

New Jersey: Amending an act providing for additional free scholarships the State Agricultural College, approved Mar. 31, 1890.

Scholarships to be awarded on competitive examination.
Ch. 77, Mar. 20, 1917

New Mexico: See M (e), University extension, public lectures.

North Carolina: Changing the name of "The Agricultural and Mechanic College for the Colored Race" to "The Negro Agricultural and Technical Col lege of North Carolina." Ch. 267, Mar. 9, 1915

North Carolina: Amending ch. 406, Acts of 1907, relating to the North Carolina College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts.

Changes name to North Carolina State College of Agriculture and Eng neering. Ch. 111, Mar. 2, 1917

North Carolina: See also M (e), University extension, public lectures; O (a), dustrial education, general.

North Dakota: See A (b1), State boards; B (d), State taxation for school rposes; M (e), University extension, public lectures.

Oklahoma: See M (e), University extension, public lectures; O (a), Indus- ial education, general; P (c), State universities and colleges; R (b), Educa- onal corporations.

Oregon: Providing for the establishment and maintenance of an agricultural periment station in Hood River County. Ch. 207, Feb. 23, 1915.

Oregon: See also M (e), University extension, public lectures.

Pennsylvania: See M (e), University extension, public lectures.

Porto Rico: Authorizing municipalities to provide scholarships in the Col- ege of Agriculture and the Mechanic Arts for apt young men who need finan- ial assistance. No. 19, Apr. 12, 1917.

Rhode Island: Amending sec. 2, ch. 76, General Laws of 1909, as amended y ch. 960, Acts of 1913, relating to the Rhode Island College of Agriculture nd Mechanic Arts.

Increases from $30,000 to $40,000 the annual State appropriation for said ollege. Ch. 1214, Apr. 22, 1915.

Rhode Island: Empowering the board of managers of Rhode Island State College to guarantee loans of money made to student societies at said college for the purpose of purchasing or constructing society houses to be used as student dormitories. Ch. 1370, Apr. 13, 1916.

South Carolina: See M (e), University extension, public lectures; P (c), State universities and colleges.

South Dakota: See M (e), University extension, public lectures; O (a), industrial education, general.

Tennessee: See G (b), State normal schools.

Texas: Establishing a branch of the Agricultural and Mechanical College in that portion of western Texas lying west of the ninety-eighth meridian and north of the twenty-ninth parallel. Ch. 29, Feb. 20, 1917.

Texas: Establishing a branch of the Agricultural and Mechanical College at Stephenville, Erath County, to be known as the John Tarleton Agricultural College. Ch. 33, Feb. 20, 1917.

Texas: Establishing at Arlington, Tarrant County, a junior agricultural, mechanical, and industrial college, to be known as the Grubbs Vocational College. Ch. 97, Mar. 26, 1917.

Texas: Establishing a junior agricultural college east of the ninety-sixth meridian and north of the thirty-first parallel, and placing the government and direction of said institution under the governing boards of the State agricultural and mechanical college. Ch. 204, Apr. 9, 1917.

Texas: See also M (e), University extension; P (c), State universities and colleges.

Utah: Amending sec. 20904, Compiled Laws of 1907, relating to fees of the Agricultural College of Utah.

Requires such fees to be turned over at the end of each month to the State treasurer. Ch. 32, Mar. 15, 1915.

Utah: See also A (b1), State boards; M (e), University extension, public lectures.

Washington: Relating to the support of the State College and allotting lands and funds thereto. Ch. 11, Feb. 10, 1917

Washington: See also A (b1), State boards; M (e), University extension public lectures; P (b), Finance, lands, support; P (c), State universities and colleges.

West Virginia: Changing the name of the West Virginia Colored Institute and establishing collegiate courses therein.

Changes name to "West Virginia Collegiate Institute." Directs regents to establish such collegiate courses as may be "expedient and possible." Empowers such institute to do extension work in agriculture, home economics, and other subjects as directed by regents. Ch. 66, Feb. 25, 19[illegible]

Wisconsin: See B (c), Permanent State School funds.

Q (c). United States Grant.

Colorado: Requiring the State board of land commissioners to make certain reports to the State board of agriculture concerning incomes, interest, royalties, and sales of the agricultural college land-grant lands.

Ch. 131, Apr. 12, 19[illegible]

Colorado: Providing for the investment of the agricultural college fund derived from lands granted by the United States Government.

State board of agriculture is authorized to invest such fund in municipal, school district bonds or farm lands; fund must produce 5 per cent income; State will make up the deficiency. Ch. 4, Apr. 12, 19[illegible]

New Hampshire: Designating the treasurer of the New Hampshire College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts as the custodian of Federal funds granted to said college. Ch. 195, Mar. 17, 19[illegible]

Q (d). Mining Schools.

Alaska: See Q (b), Agricultural colleges.

Arizona: See P (c), State universities and colleges.

Colorado: Levying a tax for the support and maintenance of the Colorado School of Mines.

In addition to levy already authorized, an annual State tax of two-hundredths of 1 mill on the dollar is levied for such school.

Ch. 46, Mar. 24, 1917.

Missouri: See Q (b), Agricultural colleges.

Nevada: Creating a school of mines to be located at Tonopah, Nev., and to be under the direction and control of the regents of the University of Nevada.

Ch. 155, Mar. 17, 19[illegible]

Nevada: Creating a school of mines to be located at Goldfield, Nev., and a school of mines to be located at Ely, Nev. Ch. 132, Mar. 20, 19[illegible]

North Dakota: Appropriating $4,000 to the School of Mines for the investigation of the clays of the State. H. B. 804, p. 66, Pop. Ed., Mar. 13, 1917.

Q (e). Military Schools.

Arizona: See L (c), Physical education.

New Mexico: Providing for the organization, control, and equipment of school cadet companies, and for the promotion of rifle practice and physical training therein. Ch. 91, Mar. 18, 19[illegible]

Ohio: Relating to the appointment of a commission to report as to the establishment of a proper policy and plan for the organized instruction of the stu

ents in the schools and colleges of this State, and such other commercial and ducational institutions and other associations as may see fit to avail themelves of such instruction, in the use of modern arms, the rudiments of drill nd maneuver, and the maintenance and sanitation of camps.
H. J. R. No. 20, p. 861, Mar. 24, 1915.

South Carolina: See P (c), State universities and colleges.

Vermont: Amending sec. 1185 of the Public Statutes, relating to the rank f the faculty of Norwich University.

Such university is recognized as the military college of the State. Members f the faculty are given military rank. No. 68, Feb. 14, 1917.

West Virginia: See P (c), State universities and colleges.

Q (f). Other Technical and Professional Schools.

Alabama: See P (c), State universities and colleges.

Colorado: See P (a), Higher institutions, general.

Nebraska: See P (c), State universities and colleges.

North Carolina: Creating the training school for nurses of the State Sanarium for the Treatment of Tuberculosis. Ch. 163, Mar. 8, 1915.

North Dakota: See A (b1), State boards.

Rhode Island: Amending sec. 6, ch. 77, General Laws of 1909, as amended y ch. 824, Acts of 1912, relating to State beneficiaries at the Rhode Island chool of Design.

Increases from $11,000 to $13,000 the annual State appropriation for said eneficiaries. (Said appropriation does not include $5,000 annually approriated to textile department.) Ch. 1265, Apr. 24, 1915.

Rhode Island: Providing for State beneficiaries at the Rhode Island College Pharmacy and Allied Sciences.

Appropriates $1,000 to be expended by State board of education for scholarips at said college. Ch. 1374, Apr. 14, 1916.

Tennessee: Providing for the establishment of the Tennessee Polytechnic stitute at Cookeville, Putnam County.

On condition that Cookeville and Putnam County donate $75,000 in cash or uivalent, the school will be established and conducted by the State board education. When established as provided in this act, such school shall ceive 2 per cent of the general educational fund of the State. (Amount of ld fund received by county high schools is hereby reduced from 8 per cent 6 per cent.) Ch. 35, Mar. 27, 1915.

Washington: Establishing the Washington State Nautical School in the port Seattle. Ch. 20, Feb. 26, 1917.

R. PRIVATE AND ENDOWED HIGHER INSTITUTIONS: STATE CONTROL.

(a) Higher Institutions.

California: Carrying into effect the provisions of sec. 1a, art. 13, of the nstitution, exempting property of educational institutions from taxation.
Ch. 629, June 5, 1915.

R (b). Corporations of an Educational Character.

Alabama: Amending sec. 3580 of the Code of 1907, relating to the amendnt of charters of educational institutions.

Trustees of the corporation must embrace the desired amendment in a resolution. If trustees are not self-perpetuating, but appointed or elected by any persons or organization other than themselves, resolution must be submitted to and receive approval of such persons or organization. After such approval it must be submitted to governor and must receive his approval. It shall then be filed in the office of secretary of state.
Act No. 436, p. 382, Sept. 16, 1915.

Hawaii: Regulating the establishment of private schools.
Act 75, Apr. 12, 1915.

Indiana: Authorizing cities of 100,000 population or more to contribute to the support of art associations providing art instruction for public school teachers and pupils. Ch. 23, Feb. 22, 1915.

Louisiana: Authorizing the Academy of the Immaculate Conception at Opelousas to confer degrees and grant diplomas which, without further requirement, shall qualify the holders thereof for positions as principals or teachers in the public schools of the State. Act No. 153, July 5, 1916.

Louisiana: Authorizing St. Mary's Academy, in the Parish of Natchitoches, to grant diplomas and confer degrees. Act No. 201, July 6, 1916.

Louisiana: Authorizing St. Paul's College, of Covington, Parish of St. Tammany, to grant diplomas and confer degrees. Act No. 213, July 6, 1916.

Louisiana: Authorizing the Academy of the Holy Angels, of New Orleans, to grant diplomas and confer degrees. Act No. 257, July 6, 1916.

Maryland: Repealing certain joint resolutions and acts of previous legislatures, the design being to repeal all continuing appropriations to colleges, academies, and schools included in what is commonly known as the "Academic fund." Ch. 377, Apr. 18, 1916.

Maryland: See also A (a), Administration and supervision, general.

Michigan: Providing for the incorporation of ecclesiastical seminaries for the higher and doctrinal education of persons intending to enter upon the ministry of the Gospel. Act No. 121, May 6, 1915.

Michigan: Regulating the soliciting, using, handling, managing, and disbursing of gifts, contributions, and donations from the public for charitable, philanthropic, educational, beneficial, or benevolent purposes; providing for the discovery and publicity of all material facts relating thereto; prescribing and defining the jurisdiction, procedure, and practice of probate courts with regard thereto; providing penalty for violation of certain provisions of the act. Act No. 194, May 10, 1915.

Nebraska: Prohibiting business colleges or business or commercial departments of any school or institution, doing business within the State of Nebraska or without the State when operating or soliciting within the State, from soliciting or accepting negotiable or promissory note or notes and from taking any negotiable notes or negotiable contracts for tuition or scholarships unless there shall be writen or printed in plain words and bold type on the face of the said note or notes or negotiable contracts for tuition or scholarship and above the signatures thereto the words "Negotiable note given for tuition" or "Negotiable contract note given for tuition and scholarship," providing when the same may be sold and disposed of, and providing a penalty for violation of the act and making void notes and contracts made in violation of the act. Ch. 220, Apr. 13, 1915.

New Jersey: An act to prohibit the conferring by any school, corporation, association, or institution of learning conducted within this State, or by any officer or member thereof, of degrees, based upon proficiency or learning without the approval of the State board of education, except in certain cases

Institutions conferring degrees must have approval of State board of education, but this act shall not apply to institutions having conferred degrees within the State for 25 years or longer, nor to any school conducted under the public school system of the State. Ch. 152, Mar. 17, 1916.

New Jersey: Authorizing educational corporations whose grounds are open to the public to acquire additional land by purchase or condemnation.
Ch. 264, Mar. 31, 1917.

New Mexico: Authorizing the use of the Museum of New Mexico by the School of American Research, and prescribing the method of appointing the regents of said museum. Ch. 97, Mar. 18, 1917.

New York: Incorporating Herring College, at Watertown, N. Y.
Ch. 41, Mar. 9, 1915.

New York: Amending the membership corporation law, in relation to alumni corporations, their funds and officers.

Increases from $10,000 to $50,000 the maximum income from property held by such corporation. Ch. 235, Apr. 17, 1916.

New York: Amending the Greater New York charter, relating to the College of the City of New York.

In addition to work previously provided for, college may now offer "other educational advantages, including the admission of nonmatriculated students, within the college or elsewhere." Vocational diplomas and degrees may be granted. Ch. 580, May 17, 1916.

New York: An act to dissolve the corporation known as "The Trustees of the Peabody Education Fund." Ch. 264, May 14, 1917.

North Carolina: Providing for the licensing of business colleges or commercial schools conducted in the State of North Carolina. Ch. 276, Mar. 9, 1915.

North Carolina: Authorizing charitable, educational, penal, or reformatory institutions not under the patronage and control of the State to change their charters, and prescribing the manner of such change.
Ch. 62, Feb. 26, 1917.

Ohio: Changing the name of Otterbein University to Otterbein College.
S. B. No. 155, p. 626, Mar. 29, 1917.

Ohio: Amending secs. 9935 and 9937 of the General Code, regulating the organizaion and government of universities and colleges and the election of trustees therein. S. B. No. 156, p. 636, Mar. 31, 1917.

Oklahoma: Providing that new business colleges seeking locations in Oklahoma shall make bond to guarantee that said colleges will remain in business until those who have purchased scholarships will be enabled to complete the course or courses for which scholarships have been purchased.
Ch. 281, Mar. 30, 1915.

Oklahoma: Authorizing various colleges and universities to grant academic and professional degrees; providing for the approval by the State board of education of other colleges and institutions, and providing penalties for the unlawful granting of degrees.

Following may grant degrees: University of Oklahoma, the Agricultural and Mechanical College, the Oklahoma College for Women, the School of Mines and Metallurgy, Kendall College, Phillips University, Kingfisher College, the Oklahoma Baptist University, the Oklahoma Methodist University, the Oklahoma Catholic University, and Oklahoma Presbyterian College at Durant.
Ch. 147, Mar. 27, 1917.

Pennsylvania: Amending an act approved June 14, 1887, relating to corporations not for profit.

Increases from $500,000 to $1,000,000 the amount of bonded indebtedness which such corporations may incur. Act No. 292, July 11, 1917

Tennessee: Empowering religious, charitable, educational, missionary, or other eleemosynary corporatons, not for profit, to receive, take, hold, or sell real or personal property by purchase, gift, devise, or bequest.
Ch. 108, Apr. 7, 1917.

Wyoming: Relating to gifts, devices, and bequests for nonsectarian public educational purposes, and providing for the organization of corporations to manage the same.

Property devised, bequeathed, or given for nonsectarian public education purposes shall be considered a charitable trust, and so long as not diverted from purpose of gift shall be exempt from taxation. Devisees may form a corporation for educational purposes. Ch. 34, Feb. 15, 1915

S. LIBRARIES AND MUSEUMS.

(a) General.

Arizona: Establishing a State library, with a law and legislative reference bureau, providing for the appointment of a board of curators and a librarian, defining their duties, and making an appropriation therefor.
Ch. 62, Mar. 24, 1915

California: Amending sec. 1715 of the Political Code, relating to the construction and location of libraries. Ch. 469, May 22, 1915

California: See also N (a), High schools.

Connecticut: Relating to the establishment and maintenance of public libraries.

Authorizes fire districts to maintain libraries. (Under old law only towns, boroughs, and cities had such authority.) Ch. 156, Apr. 21, 1915

Connecticut: Increasing from $3,250 to $4,000 the appropriation to the State public library committee. Ch. 209, May 7, 1915

Georgia: "An act to furnish to public libraries in the State of Georgia, free of charge, except for transportation, Colonial, Revolutionary, and Confederate Records of the State of Georgia." No. 464, p. 133, Aug. 18, 1916

Georgia: Providing that notaries public shall be appointed by the State librarian. No. 552, p. 137, Aug. 21, 1916

Illinois: Amending secs. 1 and 5, ch. 81, Hurd's Revised Statutes, 1913, relating to the establishment and maintenance of public libraries.

Increases from 1⅕ mills to 2 mills the library tax which a municipality of less than 100,000 population may levy; increase for city of over 100,000 is from six-tenths mill to 1 mill. Directors of public library are required to submit annually an estimate of amount of funds needed for library purposes.
S. B. 114, p. 494, June 29, 1915

Illinois: Trustees of State historical library to make rules governing said library, to procure historical material of the State, and to select a librarian at a salary of not exceeding $3,000 per annum.
H. B. 881, p. 777, June 28, 1917.

Illinois: Providing for the establishment of libraries in public parks.
S. B. 3, p. 564, May 18, 1917.

Indiana: Providing for county libraries and for the extension of library privileges to counties. Ch. 45, Acts of 1917.

Kansas: Amending sec. 1, ch. 80, session laws of 1913, relating to public libraries in cities.

Increases from four-tenths of 1 mill to one-half of 1 mill the tax that may be evied for maintenance of library. Ch. 123, Mar. 24, 1915.

Maine: Authorizing the State librarian to establish in the State library a egislative reference bureau. Ch. 129, Mar. 29, 1917.

Maine: Amending sec. 76, ch. 4, Revised Statutes of 1916, authorizing any own to raise money to secure free use of library in adjoining town. Ch. 165, Apr. 3, 1917.

Massachusetts: Authorizing the State board of free public library commisioners to determine by examination or by such rules as it may establish the lection and appointment of supervising librarians and other library workers aid wholly or in part under the authority of said board. Ch. 106, Mar. 25, 1915.

Michigan: Providing for the purchase of books for the Michigan State ibrary and books and equipment for the Michigan traveling libraries and for rinting and binding, making an appropriation therefor, and providing a tax o meet the same. Act No. 165, May 7, 1915.

Michigan: Appropriating $5,500 annually for the State board of library ommissioners for the special purposes of defraying the expenses of organizaion of existing and new libraries, and for the expense of library institutes nd training schools, and for the general expenses of the board, and providing tax to meet the same. Act No. 95, Apr. 28, 1915.

Michigan: Authorizing organized townships and incorporated villages to borow money and issue bonds therefor for the purpose of establishing free public libraries, purchasing sites, and erecting buildings thereon. Act No. 5, Mar. 9, 1917.

Michigan: Authorizing the board of supervisors of any county to create a ounty public library or to contract for the use of the inhabitants of the county ith a public library already established. Act No. 138, Apr. 25, 1917.

Montana: Providing for library extension through the establishment and aintenance of county free libraries.

On petition of not less than 20 per cent of the qualified voters of any county, t least one-half of whom shall reside outside of the county seat, the board of ounty commissioners may establish at county seat a county free library and ay establish branches thereof in other parts of the county. The legislative ody of an incorporated city or town may withdraw such city or town from he operation of this act. County tax of not exceeding 1 mill on the dollar ay be levied. Ch. 45, Feb. 27, 1915.

Nebraska: Amending sec. 3797, Revised Statutes, 1913, relating to public ibraries.

Prescribes powers and duties of library board. Ch. 86, Apr. 25, 1917.

Nevada: Extending the use of the State library.

Authorizes lending books to residents of the State and to school districts. Ch. 185, Mar. 24, 1917.

New Hampshire: Amending ch. 8 of the public statutes and acts amendatory hereto by striking out the whole of said chapter and acts and enacting in lieu hereof a new chapter relating to libraries.

Reorganizes State library, creates a State library commission, and provides or the organization and maintenance of public libraries. Ch. 59, Mar. 7, 1917.

New Jersey: Authorizing the construction and maintenance of free public library buildings on public parks or squares in cities of the second class, and he operation of free public libraries therein. Ch. 7, Feb. 18, 1916.

North Carolina: Amending ch. 475, sec. 1, Public Laws of 1913, relating to he equipment and operation of traveling libraries by the library commission.

Increases from $3,000 to $4,000 the annual appropriation for the work of the State library commission. Ch. 161, Mar. 8, 1915.

North Carolina: Directing the North Carolina Historical Commission to appoint a legislative reference librarian. Ch. 202, Mar. 9, 1915.

North Carolina: Authorizing the board of county commissioners and the county board of education of any county to cooperate with the trustees of public library in any city or town in extending the service of such library to rural communities. Ch. 149, Mar. 5, 1915.

North Carolina: Authorizing any city or town to make continuing appropriations to such library associations or corporations as maintain a library or libraries whose books shall be available without charge to the inhabitants of said city or town. Ch. 215. Mar. 6, 1915.

North Carolina: Increasing from $4,000 to $8,000 the annual appropriation for State traveling libraries. Ch. 221, Mar. 6, 1915.

North Dakota: Amending sec. 1531 and repealing sec. 1532, Compiled Laws of 1913, relating to State library commission.

Provides that State library commission shall be abolished and directs board of regents of State educational institutions to assume duties of such commission. Ch. 238, Mar. 9, 1915.

Ohio: Providing for the establishment, maintenance, care, management and control of a county library in any county where a library has been bestowed upon the county by either gift or bequest. H. B. No. 364, p. 485, June 3, 1915.

Ohio: Providing for the deposit of funds of boards of trustees of public libraries. S. B. No. 25, p. 604, Mar. 31, 1915.

Ohio: Amending sec. 7633 of the General Code, relative to the establishment and maintenance of a public library by two or more school districts.

When site or building has been provided by gift of money or property, each such district may levy a tax of not exceeding 1 mill on the dollar for the maintenance of such library. H. B. No. 260, p. 179, Mar. 30, 1915.

Ohio: Amending secs. 4004 and 4005 and enacting supplemental sec. [illegible] of the General Code, relating to the maintenance of public libraries and historical collections.

Authorizes municipality to maintain such library and collection. Bonds may be issued for buildings and furnishings.
H. B. No. 871, p. 612, Mar. 31, 1915.

Oregon: Amending ch. 117, Acts of 1911, relating to county libraries.

Any county (formerly any county of 50,000 inhabitants or more) is authorized to levy a tax of not exceeding in the aggregate 1½ mills on the dollar for the purpose of providing a county library building and branches. After central building is provided, remaining funds may be used to cooperate with city or cities in providing branches. Ch. 346, Feb. 26, 1915.

Pennsylvania: Authorizing boroughs to enter into certain contracts and make appropriations regarding libraries.

When a gift or bequest of $20,000 or more is made to a borough for establishing a public library, such borough may contract to maintain the same.
Act No. 169. May 6, 1915.

Pennsylvania: Amending an act approved July 25, 1913, providing for the establishment of the Pennsylvania Historical Commission.

Authorizes the payment of a salary of not over $1,800 to the secretary. Provides for the publication of additional historical material.
Act No. 216, June 22, 1917.

Pennsylvania: Providing for the establishment and maintenance of free public, nonsectarian libraries by counties, cities, boroughs, towns, and townships.
Act No. 398, July 20, 1917.

Rhode Island: Amending sec. 8, ch. 68, General Laws of 1909, as amended ch. 678, Acts of 1911, relating to traveling libraries.

Increases from $2,000 to $2,500 the amount which State board of education ay expend annually for such libraries. Ch. 1212, Apr. 22, 1915.

South Carolina: To promote the establishment and extension of public braries in the State.

Authorizes any county, township, or municipal corporation to acquire, own, operate a library or libraries and to levy tax of not exceeding 2 mills on e dollar for the support or acquisition of the same. On petition of oneurth of qualified electors, election shall be called and a majority vote shall etermine. If vote carries, county board of education shall, for a county or a wnship, name five library trustees; in case of a municipal corporation, city town council shall name five library trustees. No school trustee shall be a brary trustee. Act No. 127, Mar. 11, 1915.

South Carolina: Authorizing the State librarian and the secretary of the istorical commission to distribute State publications to public libraries of the tate. No. 343, Mar. 1, 1917.

South Dakota: Amending secs. 5 and 7, ch. 217, Acts of 1913, relating to ee libraries.

Increases from three to five the number of library trustees of a city, town, r township. Authorizes uniting school libraries with public libraries. Ch. 195, Mar. 11, 1915.

South Dakota: Providing for county free libraries and providing funds for andling the same. Ch. 293, Mar. 2, 1917.

Texas: An act to establish, maintain, operate, equip, and disestablish county ree libraries and county circulating libraries for the use of the citizens of this tate.

Exempting cities and towns maintaining free libraries from taxation for ounty free libraries and circulating libraries and providing for their voluntary participation in said free libraries or circulating libraries; providing for he cooperation of two or more counties in procuring and maintaining county ree library service and circulating library service and providing for the conolidation and cooperation of farmers' county public library with the county ree library and circulating library, and also authorizing the commissioners' ourt in lieu of establishing free libraries and circulating libraries to enter nto contracts with free libraries in any of the cities or towns of this State, or, here libraries have already been established, to furnish county free libraries nd circulating library service, and fixing the duty of the county commissioners in the premises, providing for the selection of county librarian, mangement, maintenance, and control, etc., of county free libraries and circulating ibraries; for the levying of a library tax; for merging farmers' county public ibraries with county free libraries and circulating libraries and for the aceptance and disposition of gifts and bequests in connection with libraries and heir maintenance; and providing for the establishment of libraries, and declarng an emergency. Ch. 117, Mar. 23, 1915.

Texas: Amending ch. 117, Acts of 1915, relating to county libraries.

Authorizes county commissioners' court to establish and maintain a county ibrary or to unite with one or more counties in establishing a joint library. Library to be established for that part of county not included in cities and owns maintaining libraries, but such cities and towns may elect to become part of county system. On its own initiative or when petitioned by 100 or more oters of that part of the county affected, said court shall submit to voters the uestion of establishing such library; majority of vote to decide. Library to e located at county seat; commissioners' court to appoint a librarian. State oard of library examiners created; to consist of State librarian, librarian of university, and three members appointed at first by State librarian and uniersity librarian, and thereafter vacancies filled by remaining members; said board to pass on qualifications of county librarians. County tax of not execeding 5 cents on the $100 shall be levied for support of library. Gifts may be accepted. All white persons entitled to use of library; separate branches must be provided for negroes. Free library privileges may be obtained for the inhabitants of a county from an established library. Ch. 57, Mar. 5, 1915.

Utah: Amending sec. 1369, Compiled Laws of 1907, as amended by ch. 3 Acts of 1911, relating to tax levy for libraries and gymnasiums in third-class cities and incorporated towns.

Reduces from 3 mills to 1 mill the maximum levy for library; reduces from 4 mills to 1⅒ mills the maximum levy for library and gymnasium combined. Ch. 111, Mar. 22, 1915.

Utah: Recognizing the Historical Society of Utah as a State institution providing for the collection and preservation of certain records and for the making of reports by the board of control. Ch. 71, Mar. 8, 1915.

Washington: Amending secs. 6971 and 6974, Remington and Ballinger's Annotated Codes and Statutes, relating to the establishment of public libraries.

Authorizes common council of incorporated town (as well of a city) to establish and maintain a free public library. Ch. 12, Feb. 25, 1915.

West Virginia: Authorizing incorporated cities and towns, and also counties and school districts, to levy taxes for the purpose of establishing public libraries and reading rooms; providing for the appointment of library boards and defining their duties and powers; providing penalties for the injury or defacement of library property, or the detention of books, magazines, newspapers, etc., belonging to a public library.

Such library established by majority vote of the voters of the city, town, county, or school district, as case may be. Tax of 1½ cents on the $100 permitted. Board of six library directors appointed by chief executive authority of city, town, etc. Said board to have general control of library. Library shall be free subject to rules of library board; said board may extend privileges to nonresidents of municipality. Board shall report annually to appointing authority. Donations, gifts, and bequests may be accepted. Ch. 64, Feb. 25, 1915.

Wisconsin: Creating subsec. 3a, ch. 296, Acts of 1913, relating to the establishment and maintenance of public library systems in counties having a population of 150,000 or more.

Money expended by county for library system in each town, village, and city shall be repaid by such town, village, or city. Ch. 126, Apr. 25, 1915.

Wyoming: Amending sec. 8, ch. 106, Acts of 1914, providing for a county library tax.

Increases from one-fourth to one-half of 1 mill on the dollar the tax that may be levied as a county library tax. Ch. 24, Feb. 10, 1915.

8 (b). Public School Libraries.

California: Amending sec. 1714 of the Political Code, relating to the school library fund in cities, or cities, and counties, not divided into school districts.

Amount apportioned shall not exceed 80 cents per pupil of average attendance in the elementary schools. Ch. 173, May 4, 1915.

Maine: Resolve appropriating money for the purchase of traveling libraries suitable for high schools in towns having no public libraries.

Appropriates $1,000 for each of the years 1915 and 1916. Resolve, Ch. 49, Mar. 8, 1915.

Minnesota: Amending sec. 2, ch. 296, Acts of 1915, relating to State aid to rural schools.

When rural district library has reached 200, board shall not be required to add thereto, but only to maintain the same. Ch. 267, Apr. 17, 1915.

Minnesota: See also B (e), State aid for elementary education; H (e), Consolidation of districts, etc.

North Carolina: See B (e), State aid for elementary education; S (a), Libraries, general.

North Dakota: Amending sec. 1176, Compiled Laws of 1913, relating to school libraries.

Provides that when a school has not less than 200 books, school board shall be required to expend not less than $5 (instead of $10) annually to purchase books until school library contains 300 volumes in good condition, after which board need spend only amount necessary to keep library in good condition.
Ch. 132, Mar. 11, 1915.

Ohio: See S (a), Libraries, general.

Pennsylvania: See A (f), Administrative units—districts, etc.

South Dakota: See S (a), Public libraries.

T. EDUCATION OF SPECIAL CLASSES.

(a) General.

Wisconsin: Providing for the maintenance of classes for exceptional children in certain cities and villages. Ch. 580, July 6, 1917.

T (b). Schools for the Deaf.

Arizona: P (a), Higher institutions, general.

Arkansas: Declaring the State school for the blind and the Deaf mute institute to be educational institutions, not charitable institutions.
S. J. R. No. 2, Mar. 24, 1917.

Arkansas: See also A (b1), State boards.

California: See T (c), Schools for the blind.

Colorado: See T (c), Schools for the blind.

Connecticut: Providing for the education of the deaf.

Authorizes the governor to appoint for not exceeding 12 years (he may extend the period 6 years) any deaf minor person, resident of the State, as a pupil in any institution in the State for the education of the deaf. When not paid by pupil, parent, or guardian, expenses of pupils shall be borne by State to extent of $300 per capita per annum, in addition not exceeding $20 may be expended for wearing apparel. Ch. 326, May 19, 1915.

Illinois: Providing for the education of deaf and blind children.

Compulsory education of deaf and blind children between the ages of 8 and 18. H. B. 392, p. 734, June 28, 1917.

Iowa: Transferring control of the State school for the deaf from the State board of control to the State board of education. Ch. 160, Apr. 7, 1917.

Iowa: Amending secs. 2700 and 2727a, Supplement to the Code, 1913, and sec. 2713, Supplemental Supplement to the Code, 1915, relating to the support of certain State institutions.

Increases from $12 to $13 per month the allowance for the support of each inmate of the institution for feeble-minded children. Increases from $22 to $24 per month (for 9 months in the year) the allowance for each resident pupil actually supported in the school for the deaf. Allows $16 per month for each inmate actually supported in the State industrial school.
Ch. 266, Apr. 21, 1917.

Iowa: Authorizing school corporations to provide education for deaf children, and providing State aid therefor. Ch. 308, Apr. 23, 1917.

Kansas: See A (b1), State boards.

Louisiana: Providing for the control of the Louisiana State School for the Deaf and the Louisiana State School for the Blind.

Hereafter such schools to be under control of State board of education.
Act No. 237, July 6, 1916.

Michigan: Declaring the Michigan School for the Deaf and the Michigan School for the Blind to be public schools. Act No. 148, Apr. 25, 1917.

Minnesota: Authorizing any special, independent, or common-school district to provide for, conduct, and maintain schools for deaf children, blind children, defective-speech children, and mentally subnormal children in such school districts in certain cases, and appropriating money therefor.
Ch. 194, Apr. 20, 1915.

Minnesota: Amending secs. 4146, 4150, 4151, 4152, and 4153, and repealing secs. 4144, 4145, and 4149, General Statutes, 1913, relating to the management and control of the State school for the deaf and the blind.

Transfers control of such schools from boards of directors to State board of control. Ch. 346. Apr. 17, 1917.

Missouri: Increasing from $40 to $60 the amount allowed to pay expenses of clothing and transportation of pupils in the school for the deaf whose parents are unable to pay such expenses. H. B. 553, p. 207, Mar. 23, 1915.

Missouri: Amending sec. 10790, Revised Statutes, 1909, relating to the enumeration of children of school age.

Fixes penalty for failure of county clerk to report the deaf and the blind.
S. B. 170, p. 500, Apr. 10, 1917.

Missouri: Amending sec. 1486, Revised Statutes, 1909, relating to the School for the Deaf.

Deaf persons under 21 years of age entitled to the benefits of the institution.
S. B. 198, p. 192, Apr. 10, 1917.

Montana: Providing for the appointment of an expert to make a general survey to determine the condition of the feeble-minded, deaf, dumb, and blind children in the State. Ch. 133, Mar. 1, 1917.

Nebraska: Changing the name of the "Nebraska Institute for the Deaf and Dumb" to the "Nebraska School for the Deaf," and changing the name of the institution for the blind to the "Nebraska School for the Blind."
Ch. 130, Apr. 13, 1915.

New York: Amending the education law, relative to clothing for State pupils and the cost of maintenance and instruction of pupils in institutions for the instruction of the deaf and dumb. Ch. 179, Apr. 14, 1917.

North Carolina: Amending ch. 399, acts of 1891, changing the corporate name of the North Carolina School for the Deaf and Dumb to the North Carolina School for the Deaf. Ch. 14, Feb. 3, 1915.

North Carolina: Amending ch. 18, vol. 2, Revisal of 1905, relating to State school for the blind and the deaf.

Changes title of "principal" to "Superintendent."
Ch. 35, Feb. 14, 1917.

Philippines: See T (c), Schools for the blind.

Tennessee: See A (b1), State boards.

Vermont: Relating to the education of deaf and blind children.

Any deaf or blind child of legal school age who is designated by the governor to any institution for the education of the deaf and the blind in this State shall attend such school during its regular sessions for period designated, unless said child is mentally or physically incapacitated, or has already acquired knowledge of branches required in the public schools, or is otherwise ng furnished with the same education, but said child shall not be required to end more than 40 weeks in any school year. Act No. 77, Mar. 18, 1915.

Wisconsin: Amending paragraph (c), subsec. (1), sec. 20.32; subsec. (3), . 20.32; and subsec. 1, sec. 579m, Wisconsin statutes, relating to day schools the deaf.

Regulates State aid to such schools. Ch. 343, June 6, 1917.

T (c). Schools for the Blind.

Alabama: Providing for the establishment and maintenance of an industrial ool for white blind men, making an appropriation therefor, providing for appointment of a board of trustees to manage said school, and defining the ect of the same. Act No. 808, p. 920, Sept. 28, 1915.

Arizona: See P (a), Higher institutions, general.

Arkansas: See A (b1), State boards; T (b), Schools for the deaf.

California: Providing for the separation of the deaf and the blind departnts of the California School for the Deaf and Blind. Ch. 20, Apr. 1, 1915.

California: Providing readers for blind students in the University of Calinia and providing for assistance to deaf students attending the National llege for the Deaf at Washington, D. C. Ch. 681, June 9, 1915.

California: Relating to the California School for the Deaf and the Blind. Minor amendments. Ch. 681, June 9, 1915.

California: Appropriating money to provide readers for blind students in University of California, and to assist deaf students attending the National llege for the Deaf at Washington, D. C. Ch. 349, May 14, 1917.

Colorado: Levying a tax for the support and maintenance of the Colorado nool for Deaf and Blind and for the construction of buildings for the use of d institution.

In addition to levy already authorized by law, there shall be levied annually o and three-quarter-hundredths of 1 mill. Ch. 58, Apr. 12, 1915.

Illinois: See T (b), Schools for the deaf.

Indiana: Creating a board of industrial aid for the blind, prescribing its wers and duties, and providing for improving the conditions of the blind.

Among other powers, board may establish workshops, or industrial schools the blind. Ch. 59, Mar. 5, 1915.

Indiana: Requiring State institutions and political divisions of the State to rchase articles produced under the supervision of the board of industrial aid the blind. Ch. 170, Mar. 10, 1915.

Indiana: Relating to the education of the blind in the State universities and ate normal schools.

Makes it the duty of trustees of such institutions to supply for at least three urs a day persons to read to matriculated blind students. Ch. 169, Acts of 1917.

Iowa: See T (b), Schools for the deaf.

Kansas: Providing readers for blind persons receiving higher education and king an appropriation for the same.

Provides that not exceeding $300 per annum may be expended for each blind rson, resident of the State for preceding five years, who is attending an apoved higher institution. Ch. 320, Mar. 20, 1915.

Kansas: See also A (b1), State boards.

Louisiana: See T (b), Schools for the deaf.

Massachusetts: An act to provide for the instruction of the adult their homes.

Massachusetts commission for the blind may expend for such purpose ceeding $6,000 per annum. Ch. 201, May 12, 191

Michigan: See T (b), Schools for the deaf.

Minnesota: Providing for the necessary expenses of blind students versities, colleges, and conservatories of music.

Each such student may receive not exceeding $300 per annum. Ch. 307, Apr. 24, 19

Minnesota: See also T (b), Schools for the deaf.

Missouri: Providing that the Missouri School for the Blind shall be re classed, and conducted as an educational institution, and that its classific conduct, and management shall be wholly separate and distinct from the benevolent, chartiable, custodial, and correctional institutions. S. B. 409, p. 207, Mar. 23, 19

Missouri: Amending secs. 1481 and 1482, Revised Statutes, 1909, rel the School for the Blind.

Persons under 21 entitled to the benefits of the institution. County may pay expenses in certain cases. S. B. 205, p. 191, Apr. 10, 19

Missouri: See also T (b), Schools for the deaf.

Montana: See T (b), Schools for the deaf.

Nebraska: Changing the name of the Nebraska Institute for the B the Nebraska School for the Blind. Ch. 130, Apr. 13, 19

Nebraska: See also T (b), Schools for the deaf.

New Mexico: Providing for the compulsory education of blind pers tween the ages of 5 and 21 years. Ch. 33, Mar. 9, 19

North Carolina: Amending ch. 141, Extra Session of 1908, relating t pulsory education of the blind.

Sheriffs required to enforce the provisions of the law. Ch. 20, Feb. 5, 19

North Carolina: See also T (b), Schools for the deaf.

Ohio: Amending secs. 775, 7756, 7757, 7758, 7759, 7760, and 7761 of the eral Code, providing for the establishment of public schools for the blind. H. B. No. 182, p. 153, Mar. 19, 19

Pennsylvania: Authorizing the State board of education to provide ed tion for needy blind children over the age of 8 years. (Old law autho education of such children only up to the age of 8 years). Act No. 201, May 14, 19

Pennsylvania: Amending sec. 1439 of the School Code and adding the sec. 1440, relating to the education of the blind.

State board of education may pay not exceeding $1.50 a day for the edu tion of a blind child under 8 years of age in a nonsectarian institution. S board may provide readers for blind students in higher institutions. Act No. 118, May 17, 191

Philippines: Authorizing the director of education to furnish subsiste and other living expenses to pupils of the school for the deaf and blind Manila and of certain schools of agriculture. Act No. 2511, Feb. 5, 1915

South Dakota: Providing for the care, maintenance, and instruction of bli babies and children under school age. Ch. 150, Mar. 10, 191

Tennessee: Providing for the care, maintenance, and education of blind chi dren of school age who are not eligible to the State School for the Blind f lack of training, where the parents of such children have not sufficient mea to properly care for them.

State board of education may contract with a suitable institution for such re at a charge of not exceeding $1 per day for each child.
Ch. 82, May 5, 1915.

Tennessee: See also A (b1), State boards.

Vermont: See T (b), Schools for the deaf.

Wisconsin: Authorizing the establishment of a summer school for the adult ind in connection with the school for the blind at Jamesville.
Ch. 418, June 14, 1917.

Wisconsin: Providing State aid for expenses of blind students in any univer-ty, college, or conservatory of music. Ch. 581, July 6, 1917.

Wisconsin: See also F (c), Teachers' pensions.

T (d). Schools for Crippled and Deformed.

California: Authorizing the board of trustees of Whittier State School to aintain a department for care and training of defective persons.
Ch. 729, June 11, 1915.

Massachusetts: Directing the State board of education to investigate the ubject of special training for injured persons.
Resolve 75, May 1, 1916.

Minnesota: See T (b), Schools for the deaf.

New York: Amending the education law by providing for the education of hysically defective children. Ch. 559, May 18. 1917.

Vermont: Amending sec. 1006, Public Statutes of 1906, relating to school irectors' duties.

Authorizes directors to provide instruction at home for any child suffering rom permanent physical disability, expense not to exceed $1 per week.
Act No. 68, Mar. 15, 1915.

Wisconsin: Authorizing boards of school directors in cities of the first class to furnish transportation and transport crippled children to school and to provide lunches for such children. Ch. 236, May 17, 1917.

T (e). Schools for Feeble-Minded.

Arkansas: Providing for the establishment of an institution for the care and training of the feeble-minded. Act 172, Mar. 6, 1917.

California: Establishing an institution for the care, confinement, and instruction of feeble-minded and epileptic persons. Ch. 776, June 1, 1917.

Connecticut: Changing the name of the Connecticut School for Imbeciles to the Connecticut Training School for the Feeble-Minded, and authorizing the construction of buildings for said school. Ch. 336, May 20, 1915.

Connecticut: Consolidating the Connecticut Training School for the Feeble-Minded and the Connecticut Colony for Epileptics, and establishing the Mansfield State Training School and Hospital. Ch. 417, May 17, 1917.

Florida: Providing for the appointment of a commission to investigate the need of a State institution for the care of the epileptic and feeble-minded in the State. Ch. 6920 (No. 114), May 25, 1915.

Iowa: See T (b), Schools for the deaf.

Maine: Amending sec. 1, ch. 44, Public Laws of 1907, relating to the admission of persons to the Maine School for the Feeble-Minded.

Fixes ages of those who may be admitted at between 6 and 40 for males and between 6 and 45 for females; idiotic and feeble-minded State paupers may be admitted at older ages. Ch. 224, Mar. 30, 1915.

Maine: Relating to commitments to the Maine School for Feeble-Minded by judges of probate.

Amendment provides that application must first be made to hospital trustees and evidence thereof presented to judge of probate, accompanied by a certificate of the superintendent that person will be received when properly committed. Ch. 108, Mar. 15, 1915.

Maine: Prohibiting the aiding or abetting of the escape of inmates of the Maine School for Feeble-Minded. Ch. 113, Mar. 16, 1915.

Maine: Relating to the discharge of inmates of the Maine School for Feeble-Minded.

Provides that a majority (formerly "any three") of the trustees may discharge an inmate. Ch. 107, Mar. 15, 1915.

Minnesota: See T (b), Schools for the deaf.

Montana: See T (b), Schools for the deaf.

Nebraska: Amending secs. 7223 and 7224, Revised Statutes of 1913, relating to persons admitted to the Nebraska Institution for Feeble-Minded Youth; repealing sec. 7225 of said Statutes.

Such institution shall receive as inmates only idiotic, imbecile, and feeble-minded persons transferred from other State institutions by the board of commissioners of State institutions, or committed thereto by a juvenile court or a county court. Provisions creating a tax fund for the support of the institution is repealed. Ch. 131, Apr. 14, 1915.

New Hampshire: Amending ch. 102, Acts of 1901, as amended by ch. 2 Acts of 1905, relating to the State school for the feeble-minded.

Strikes out limitation to feeble-minded girls between 3 and 21 years of age so that "the feeble-minded" may be admitted to said school. Ch. 141, Apr. 10, 1917.

New Hampshire: Appropriating $58,000 for additional accommodations at the school for feeble-minded children. Ch. 240, Aug. 3, 1917.

New Hampshire: See also A (b1), State boards.

New York: Amending the education law by providing for the education of children with retarded mental development. Ch. 553, May 18, 1917.

North Carolina: Changing the name of the North Carolina School for the Feeble-Minded and providing for admission and discharge of children from said school.

Changes name to "The Caswell Training School" and continues the same as a body corporate. Feeble-minded and idiotic children between 6 and 21 years of age and feeble-minded women between 21 and 30 who are not pregnant or helpless may be admitted. Application for such admission must have approval of county commissioners of county wherein feeble-minded person resides. In case parent or custodian is unable to provide clothing and transportation for child, the same shall be furnished by the county wherein child resides. Any pupil may be discharged or returned to parent or guardian when said pupil is not benefited by school or when best interests of school so require. Ch. 266, Mar. 9, 1915.

North Dakota: Relating to the Institution for the Feeble-Minded.

Provides that the expense, to the extent of $15 a month, of the care, board and treatment of each patient in the Institution for the Feeble-Minded shall be a charge upon the county from which the patient is sent, but if the person legally responsible for the support of such patient is able to pay the same, such person shall be responsible to the county for said amount. Ch. 113, Mar. 10, 1915.

North Dakota: Amending sec. 1714, Compiled Laws, 1913, relating to the commitment of feeble-minded persons to the Institution for the Feeble-Minded.

Inmates may be removed only with the approval of the board of control and the superintendent of said institution. H. B. 244, p. 12 Pop. Ed., Mar. 12, 1917.

Oregon: Providing for the examination and commitment of feeble-minded r criminally inclined persons over 5 years of age, for their conveyance to the nstitution for the Feeble-Minded by a trained attendant, and for the payment f maintenance by county from which committed; providing for the care of ame by relatives when competent and for right of appeal in all commitments; nd further providing for report on preliminary cases by school superindendents, arents, and guardians. Ch. 354, Feb. 21, 1917.

Rhode Island: Changing the name of the Rhode Island School for the Feeble-Minded to the "Exeter School." Ch. 1381, Apr. 14, 1916.

Texas: Providing for the establishment and maintenance of a State farm colony for the education of feeble-minded children. Ch. 90, Mar. 22, 1915:

Utah: See A (b1), State boards.

Vermont: Amending secs. 13 and 17, No. 81, Acts of 1912, providing for the care, training, and education of feeble-minded children.

Increases from $25,000 to $65,000 the appropriation for establishing a State school for the feeble-minded. Act No. 78, Mar. 31, 1915.

Vermont: See also A (b2), State officers.

Virginia: Regulating the admission of inmates to the Virginia Colonly for the feeble-minded. Ch. 106, Mar. 4, 1916.

Washington: Changing the name of the "State Institution for Feeble-Minded" to the "State Custodial School." Ch. 64, Mar. 10, 1917.

T (f). Tuberculous Children.

Colorado: See A (d), District boards and officers.

U. WELFARE OF DEPENDENTS AND DELINQUENTS.

(a) General.

U (b). Wrongs to Children.

Arizona: Unlawful to furnish tobacco in any form to a person under 21 years old, or for such person to buy or receive the same.
Ch. 9, Feb. 27, 1917.

California: Prohibiting the sale, gift, or delivery of intoxicating liquor at public schoolhouses. Ch. 21, Apr. 1, 1915.

Hawaii: Amending secs. 3001 and 3003, Revised Statutes of 1915, relating to curfew.

Misdemeanor for keeper of coffee shop, ice-cream parlor, victualing or billiard saloon, bowling alley, skating rink, theater, showhouse, or premises in which any show, moving picture, or like entertainment is given to permit child under 15 years of age in such place unless said child is accompanied by proper responsible adult. Act No. 44, Apr. 5, 1915.

Kansas: Prohibiting the sale or gift of cigarettes or tobacco in any form to persons under 21 years of age; making it unlawful for the proprietor of any place of business to permit any minor to frequent such place while in the act of using tobacco in any form. Ch. 166, Mar. 12, 1917.

Michigan: Prohibiting the selling, giving, or furnishing of cigarettes to minors; prohibting the use of cigarettes by minors, and prohibiting the harboring of minors for the purpose of indulging in the use of cigarettes.
Act No. 31, Apr. 1, 1915.

New Jersey: Prohibiting furnishing cigarettes or tobacco in any form to minors under 18 years of age. Ch. 63, Mar. 19, 1915.

Oklahoma: Prohibiting furnishing cigarettes or cigarette papers to minors. Ch. 190, Apr. 2, 1915.

U (c). Juvenile Courts.

See also U (e), Schools for dependents and delinquents.

Alabama: Relating to delinquent children.

Any child under 16 years of age who violates any law of the State, or who violates any ordinance of any municipality of this State, or who is incorrigible; or who knowingly associates with thieves or gamblers; or who is growing up in idleness or crime; or knowingly visits or enters a house of ill fame; or who knowingly visits or patronizes any policy shop, bucket shop, pool room, billiard room, bar room, or club room, where liquors are kept or drunk, or served to members; or where any gaming table, or device for gambling is operated, or who loiters about any such places; or who habitually smokes cigarettes; or who wanders about any railroad yards, or tracks, or jumps or hooks on to any moving engine or car; or unlawfully enters any engine or car; or who habitually uses any vile, obscene, profane, or indecent language; or is found in possession of any indecent, lascivious book, picture, print, card, or paper; or who is in possession of any pistol, dirk, bowie knife or metal knuckles; or is guilty of immoral conduct in any public place, or in or about any schoolhouse, or who engages in any occupation, calling, or exhibition, or is found in any place for permitting which an adult may be punished by law; and generally, any child who so deports himself, or is in such conditions, or surroundings, or is under such improper or insufficient guardianship or control, as to endanger the morals, health, or general welfare of such child, shall be deemed a ward of the State, and entitled to its care and protection and the State shall exercise its right of guardianship and control over such child in the manner hereinafter provided.

Probate courts and city recorders' courts shall have jurisdiction under this act. Child shall be brought into court by service of summons issued upon information and belief of person having knowledge or information of child's delinquency, or court may direct officer to take child into custody immediately; person in parental relation shall also be summoned; if such person can not be found or is a nonresident, court shall appoint a guardian ad litem to be present at trial of child. Court shall keep a separate docket for juvenile cases; only officers of court, attorneys, and person in parental relation shall be present at trial. Probation officers are provided for. If child's home is proper, court shall give preference to leaving child in such home under the guardianship of the State; if home is improper, child may be committed to some suitable person or home or to proper State correctional institution. If commitment is to one of the State correctional institutions, it shall be until child reaches the age of 21 or until child is released by governing board of such institution. Any party aggrieved may appeal from the order or judgment of the court in the case to any court of the county having equity jurisdiction. Whenever a child under 16 years old is brought before a magistrate or any court in the county other than a recorder's court the case shall be transferred to the probate court; if probate court is convinced that any child can not be reformed, said court may remand such child to a court of criminal jurisdiction for trial. Misdemeanor to contribute knowingly or wilfully to the delinquency, neglect, or dependency of a child. Probate court and recorder's court shall jointly appoint an advisory board of the juvenile courts of the county; board to consist of not fewer than 10 nor more than 15 members and to serve without compensation. Duties: To advise court in the appointment of probation officers; to visit institutions receiving children under this act and report to courts on same; to make themselves familiar with the work of the juvenile court and report on the same to the public. Confessions, admissions, etc., of children are not admissible as evidence against them.

Act No. 506, p. 577, Sept. 16, 1915.

Alabama: See also H (f), Compulsory attendance; U (e), Schools for dependents and delinquents.

izona: Providing for the destruction of the records of juvenile courts two s after expiration of period of commitment of inmate or after parole of te, unless inmate has been convicted of another offense.

Ch. 18, Mar. 6, 1917.

nnecticut: Concerning juvenile offenders.

as effect of giving discretion to court to have such offenders taken into ody by summons and to try cases in chambers. Ch. 308, May 16, 1917.

orida: Providing for the punishment of any person or persons responsible r contributing to the delinquency or dependency of children.

Ch. 6906 (No. 100), May 20, 1915.

eorgia: Providing for the establishment in certain counties of juvenile rts with jurisdiction to adjudicate upon all children under 16 years of age are delinquent, neglected, or otherwise subject to the discipline, or in need he care and protection, of the State; regulating the procedure in such cases, uding the establishment of a detention home and a probation system, and appointment of guardians for such children; providing for the appointment, ifications, duties, powers, and compensation of the judge, probation officer, other officers of said court; providing for the punishment of any adult may encourage, aid, cause, abet, or connive at such state of delinquency neglect.

pplies to counties having a population of 60,000 or more.

No. 210, p. 85, Aug. 16, 1915.

eorgia: Amending an act establishing juvenile courts in certain counties, roved Aug. 16, 1915.

rovides that the act shall apply to all counties (was only those of over 00 population). Adds "Georgia State Reformatory, the Georgia Training ool for Girls, or any other State institution already existing or hereafter to established, for the correction, reformation, or protection of childen" to titutions to which delinquent children may be committed. Directs judge of superior court in any county of less than 60,000 population to designate a rt of record as juvenile court, but in a county having between 35,000 and 00 population, a suitable person may be appointed judge of the juvenile irt on recommendation of two successive grand juries. Probation officers vided for. No. 575, p. 58, Aug. 19, 1916.

awaii: Directing judge of the juvenile court to appoint a woman to accomy any girl conveyed to the industrial school for girls.

Act 9, Mar. 14, 1917.

daho: Amending sec. 163, ch. 159, acts of 1911, relating to the appointment probation officers.

uthorizes the appointment of such officers in independent districts and ool districts having graded schools of three or more teachers.

Ch. 84, Mar. 14, 1917.

Illinois: Providing for the punishment of the crime of contributing to the linquency of children. H. B. 817, p. 369, June 25, 1915.

Indiana: Defining "delinquent child" and fixing penalty for contributing to e delinquency of children. Ch. 111, Mar. 7, 1917.

Maryland: An act to confer additional powers upon the circuit courts for e several counties of Maryland relating to children who are now or hereter may become dependent, neglected, or delinquent; to define such terms d to provide for the treatment, protection, guardianship, and care of such ildren, and to prescribe the procedure in such cases; to provide for the apintment of probation officers and for the payment of their salaries and exnses; to restrict and, under certain circumstances, take away the jurisdicon of the justices of the peace of the several counties in such cases, and to escribe the punishment for persons encouraging the dependency or delin-

New Jersey:
minors under 18
Oklahoma: Pr

See also U (e)

Alabama: Rel
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Alabama: Se
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Massachusetts: [illegible]
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Minnesota: An act to [illegible] codify, and
juvenile courts, defining their jurisdiction and
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contributing to such neglect or delinquency and rep
and inconsistent therewith.

Missouri: Providing for the treatment and
quent children under 17 years of age in counties
and conferring jurisdiction on circuit courts, a
Mar. 21, 1919, entitled "An act conferring jur
counties of less than 50,000 inhabitants to provi
children under 17 years of age, who are delin
subject to the discipline or in need of the care
S.

Montana: Amending sec. 14, ch. 122, acts of
ment of probation officers in judicial districts,
and providing for their compensation.

New Hampshire: Amending sec. 3, ch. 125, act
of dependent, neglected and delinquent children.

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[illegible] address or any other particular i
[illegible] arrested or for any ne
[illegible]

New Hampshire: [illegible] the reform of
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Pennsylvania: See also U (e), Schools for dependents and delinquents.

Porto Rico: To establish a system of juvenile courts; to provide for the care neglected and delinquent children; and to provide for the disposition of all ses of juvenile delinquency, and for other purposes.

Act No. 37, Mar. 11, 1915.

Rhode Island: To establish juvenile courts and to provide for the care of linquent and wayward children.

The term "delinquent" shall mean and include any child under 16 years of ge who has violated any city or town ordinance or has committed an offense gainst the laws of the State, unless such offense be murder or manslaughter. he term "wayward" shall mean any child under 17 who has deserted its ome without good cause; or who habitually associates with dissolute, vicious, immoral persons; or who is growing up in circumstances exposing it to lead n immoral, vicious, or criminal life; or who is habitually disobedient to the easonable and lawful commands of its parent, or parents, guardian or lawful ustodian. District courts shall have jurisdiction in cases contemplated in this ct. Proceedings shall be by petition to the court in writing, setting forth that n the opinion of the petitioner such child is delinquent or wayward. Such petition shall be sworn to and filed with the justice or clerk of the court having urisdiction, and if satisfied that there is reasonable cause for the petition, said ustice or clerk shall issue a summons to appear in court to such child and to erson in parental relation or to person with whom child resides, if known; n case of doubt as to whether child will appear upon summons, a warrant may e issued. Pending a hearing, child may be released on recognizance or parole. Officer authorized to make an arrest may take into custody a delinquent r wayward child, but petition must be filed within 24 hours; child shall not e placed in jail or lock-up or kept or conveyed with criminal or vicious persons. Court may determine that child shall not be proceeded against under this act, but as otherwise provided by law. Court may release on parole a child adjudged delinquent or wayward, or may commit such a child to a detention home during its minority; jurisdiction of court shall continue over child during its minority or until discharged by court. Child violating conditions of parole may at any time during parole be ordered again before the court and may be detained in the proper institution. Child adjudged delinquent or wayward may appeal to the superior court of the county and from thence to the supreme court. Juvenile court and superior court may exclude the public from hearings of juvenile cases and may order the records to be withheld from public inspection; sessions where juvenile cases are heard shall be held separate from trials of adult offenders. Dismissal of a petition shall not bar other criminal proceeding, but adjudgment of a child as delinquent or wayward shall bar such proceedings. Institutions to which child may be committed: For boys the Sockanosset School for Boys; for girls, the Oaklawn School for Girls. Probation officers and deputy probation officers provided for. When a petition is filed, such officer shall be notified and he shall investigate the case and report upon the same; he shall be present at hearings; a woman probation officer shall be present at hearing when a girl is the offender. Court may commit child to care of probation officer. Evidence given in a hearing of a case under this act shall not be admissible in other criminal proceedings. Judgment against child shall not subject child to civil disability. This act shall be liberally construed. State board of control and supply directed to select a site suitable for the erection of a detention home for delinquent and wayward children.

Ch. 1185, Mar. 24, 1915.

South Dakota: An act relating to children who now are or may hereafter become dependent, neglected, or delinquent; to define these terms and to provide for the treatment, control, maintenance, adoption, and guardianship of the person of such children, and giving the county court jurisdiction as a juvenile court, providing its officers, and prescribing its procedure.

Ch. 119, Mar. 12, 1915.

Tennessee: Providing for the care and protection of children; defining child dependency and delinquency; providing court commitments and guardianship of the person of delinquent and dependent children; authorizing private agencies and institutions for the care of dependent and delinquent children; arranging consent to their adoption; regulating placing out in families; providing State supervision, records, and reports for such welfare work.

Ch. 120, Apr. 6, 1917.

Tennessee: See also U (e), Schools for dependents and delinquents.

Texas: See H (f), Compulsory attendance.

Vermont: Amending No. 113, Acts of 1912, relating to juvenile courts.

Act applies to children under 16 years of age, but child may be continued a ward of the court until the age of 21 is reached if a boy, or the age of 18 if a girl. "Deliquent child" and "dependent child" defined. City and municipal courts and justices of the peace (under old law was probate courts) shall have original jurisdiction. Upon petition of a reputable citizen, person in charge of child summoned to produce child in court. Court may order probation officer to take charge of child. Dependent or neglected child may be committed to the care of some suitable institution or reputable citizen; when child's health requires, court may commit child to a hospital. A delinquent child committed to custody of probation officer, may be permitted to remain at home subject to visitation of probation officer, or may be committed to some reputable person or suitable institution or to the Vermont Industrial School. An arrested child under 16 shall be taken before the juvenile court. No child under 16 shall be incarcerated in a jail or prison, unless charged with a crime punishable by death. Court may require reports from private institutions receiving children under this act. Court may make an order requiring parents to contribute to support of a dependent or delinquent child.

Act. No. 92, Apr. 2, 1915

West Virginia: Relating to children who are now or may hereafter become dependent, neglected, or delinquent; defining these terms and providing for the treatment, control, maintenance, protection, adoption, and guardianship of the persons of such children; defining contributory dependency, negligence, and delinquency, and making the same a misdemeanor; providing for the punishment of persons guilty thereof; authorizing county authorities to establish and maintain a detention home for the temporary care and custody of dependent, delinquent, and neglected children, and to levy and collect a tax to pay the cost of its establishment and maintenance.

Constitutes the circuit and criminal courts of the several counties "juvenile courts" and confers upon such courts jurisdiction in cases of delinquency or dependency of children under 18 years of age. For purposes of this act guardianship of State extends until the age of 21 is reached by child. Cases instituted by petition and summons. Probation officers provided. Dependent or neglected children may be permitted to remain at home or committed to the care of some suitable association or society, to some suitable person, or to a State institution organized for the care of such children; head of institution or association shall be guardian. Delinquent children similarly treated. Such children may be paroled on probation, etc. Cases of delinquency of children under 18 transferred from justice and police courts to juvenile court. Children under 12 not to be committed to jail or police station. Institutions receiving children under this act are subject to visitation and supervision of State board of control. Misdemeanor to contribute to delinquency or dependency of any child.

Ch. 70, Feb. 26, 1915.

Wisconsin: Amending subsec. 1, sec. 4725a, of the statutes, relating to the probation of minors.

Minor convicted of an offense for which the maximum penalty is 10 years (was 7 years) may be paroled on probation.

Ch. 13, Mar. 20, 1915.

Wisconsin: Amending sec. 4581l of the statutes, relating to the responsibility for the neglect, dependence, or delinquency of children.

Makes it a misdemeanor to contribute to the neglect or dependence (as well as delinquency) of a child.

Ch. 177, May 28, 1915.

Wisconsin: See also H (f), Compulsory attendance.

U (d). Conduct of Children.

U (e). Truant, Detention, and Reform Schools and Schools for Dependents.

See also U (c), Juvenile courts.

Alabama: Relating to the State Training School for Girls.

Changes name of Alabama Home of Refuge for Delinquent Girls to State Training School for Girls. In addition to judges already vested with such power, any municipal court, or judge thereof or city recorder may commit white girls to said institution. Board of managers may reduce their number to seven, exclusive of governor and attorney-general. Minimum age at which girls may be committed is fixed at 9 years. Misdemeanor to induce a girl to leave such institution. Sum of $50,000 appropriated for buildings, equipment, etc. Managers may dispose of property in East Lake, a part of Birmingham, and relocate school. Act No. 780, p. 896, Sept. 25, 1915.

Alabama: Amending an act entitled "An act to provide for State aid, regulation and supervision of the Mercy Home Industrial School for Girls, located at Birmingham, Ala.," approved April 15, 1911.

Appropriates $5,000 a year. Authorizes any court having jurisdiction in juvenile court to commit to such school any dependent or neglected girl or girl in danger of becoming delinquent, if between the ages of 12 and 16.
Act No. 359, p. 345, Sept. 4, 1915.

Alabama: See also U (c), Juvenile courts.

Arizona: Directing the sale of certain parcels of land with the buildings thereon, known as the "old industrial school property," located near the town of Benson in Cochise County, and providing for the disposal of the proceeds of such sale. Ch. 24, Mar. 9, 1915.

Arizona: See also P (a), Higher institutions, general.

Arkansas: Providing for the removal of the State reform school, for the purchase of grounds and equipment for the same and for the change of name of said institution to "Boys' Industrial School," and converting the property now used by said institution to the use of an institution to be known as the "Girls' Industrial School," and providing for the management of the same.
Act 67, Feb. 9, 1917.

Connecticut: Amending ch. 162, Public Acts of 1909, relating to the Connecticut reformatory.

Provides for the transfer of boys between 14 and 21 years old from the Connecticut School for Boys to the State reformatory, upon request of trustees of said school. Ch. 186, May 4, 1915.

Florida: Creating separate industrial schools for boys and girls, designating the manner in which boys and girls may be placed and detained in said institutions, indicating the plan of management therefor, and making an appropriation to carry out the provisions of this act.
Ch. 6840 (No. 34), June 3, 1915.

Florida: Establishing detention homes and schools for delinquent children and providing for their maintenance and control.
Ch. 6841 (No. 35), June 4, 1915.

Florida: Amending sec. 5, ch. 6916, Acts of 1915, relating to the commitment of boys to the Florida industrial school for boys.

Court may commit boy in its discretion till he reaches his majority or until discharged by the board of managers. Ch. 7377, June 5, 1917.

Georgia: Appropriating $12,500 for the erection of buildings at the Georgia Training School for Girls. No. 493, p. 12, Aug. 19, 1916.

Georgia: See also U (c), Juvenile courts.

Hawaii: Amending sec. 2289, Revised Laws of 1915, relating to the care dependent children under 18 years of age.

Allows pay to private institutions for caring for such children.
Act No. 102, Apr. 16, 1915

Illinois: Providing for the punishment of the crime of contributing to dependency and neglect of children. H. B. 296, p. 368, June 23, 1915

Illinois: Amending an act providing for schools for delinquent children, approved June 2, 1911.

Adds "boards of school inspectors" to boards which may establish such schools. H. B. 827, p. 628, June 23, 1915

Iowa: Changing the names of the Industrial School for Boys and the Industrial School for Girls.

"Industrial school" changed to "training school."
Ch. 54, Mar. 19, 1917

Kansas: Providing for a parental home for homeless, dependent, neglected or delinquent children in any county having a population of not less than 80,000. Ch. 276, Mar. 24, 1917

Kansas: Creating office of parole officer at Industrial School for Girls, Beloit, Kans. Ch. 331, Mar. 11, 1917

Kansas: Amending sec. 10109, General Statutes of 1915, relating to commitments to State Industrial School for Girls.

Girl offenders under 18 years of age may be committed to said school.
Ch. 303, Mar. 10, 1917

Kansas: See also A (b1), State boards.

Kentucky: Providing for the securing of a separate farm for a house of reform for girls, and providing for the management thereof.

Ch. 85, 1916. (Neither approved nor disapproved by the governor.)

Louisiana: See A (a), Administration and supervision, general.

Maine: Changing name of the Maine Industrial School for Girls.

Changes name to "State School for Girls"; changes title of "principal" to "superintendent." Ch. 152, Mar. 22, 1915

Maine: Repealing sec. 25, ch. 143, of the Revised Statutes, providing for the commitment of idle and vicious girls to the State School for Girls by parents or guardians. Ch. 184, Mar. 24, 1915

Maine: Amending secs. 3 and 20, ch. 144, sec. 29, ch. 117, sec. 25, ch. [illegible] Revised Statutes of 1916, and making additional provisions pertaining to inmates of State juvenile institutions, and increasing the salary of the superintendent of the State school for boys.

Changes age limits within which boy may be committed to State school for boys, or girl, to State school for girls. Incorrigible girl over 16 years of age may be transferred to reformatory for women. Feeble-minded inmates of either institution may be transferred to school for feeble-minded. Salary of superintendent of school for boys is increased from $1,000 to $1,500. Indeterminate sentences not to apply to State school for boys.
Ch. 130, Mar. 29, 1917.

Maryland: See U (c), Juvenile courts.

Massachusetts: Further defining the powers and duties of the trustees of the Massachusetts training schools.

Said trustees may grant an honorable discharge to any meritorious persons in their custody whom they believe to be permanently reformed; they may transfer any unmanageable or improper person from the industrial school for boys or Lyman school for boys to the Massachusetts reformatory; likewise they may make transfers from the industrial school for girls to the reformatory for women. They may act as guardians for any boy or girl under their

rge. They shall make honest effort to induce boys and girls under their rge on parole to save some portion of their earnings.
Ch. 113, Mar, 27, 1915.

assachusetts: Directing the County of Hampden to erect buildings for a nty training school for the instruction of children committed thereto as bitual truants or school offenders. Ch. 122, Mar. 30, 1915.

assachusetts: Directing the State board of education and the director of e Massachusetts board of prisons to investigate the matter of establishing hools in county jails and houses of correction.
Ch. 59 (Resolves), Apr. 23, 1917.

Massachusetts: Providing for the mental instruction of inmates of the assachusetts Reformatory. Ch. 248, May 14, 1917.

Michigan: Authorizing the superintendent of public instruction to direct and pervise the instruction and training of inmates of institutions for juvenile linquents. Act No. 137, Apr. 25, 1917.

Minnesota: Providing for the establishment of juvenile detention houses for irls in certain counties. Ch. 228, Apr. 21, 1915.

Minnesota: Authorizing county commissioners in counties having between 00,000 and 300,000 inhabitants to issue bonds for the purchase, erection, and quipment of homes for boys or girls in connection with the juvenile court.
Ch. 3, Jan. 28, 1915.

Minnesota: Amending secs. 4157, 4161, 4167, and 4168, and repealing secs. 155, 4156, 4159, 4160, 4162, and 4169, General Statutes of 1913, relating to the ontrol and management of the State public school.

Juvenile court to commit dependent children under 15 years of age. State oard of control to assume guardianship of child committed. Said board may find home for children. Ch. 214, Apr. 12, 1917.

Minnesota: Amending sec. 2987, General Statutes, 1913, relating to schools for truants.

Reduces from 18 to 16 the minimum age to which truants may be required to attend such schools. Ch. 239, Apr. 14, 1917.

Mississippi: An act to make an appropriation of $25,000 for the purpose of buying land, erecting buildings and equipping the Missisipi Industrial and Training School. Ch. 50, Apr. 5, 1916.

Mississippi: An act to regulate the custody, control, and care of delinquent children and to provide for the establishment and maintenance of a State industrial and training school.

Provision made for the establishment of such a school. Children admitted: (1) those under 18 years of age who violate any municipal ordinance or State law; (2) those under 18 who are destitute or homeless or in immoral environment. Proceedings begun by petition to chancery or circuit judge. Child may be discharged on approval of court. Commitment may be made for indefinite period. Probation officers provided. Child may be left in care of parents, placed under probation officer, or committed to industrial and training school.
Ch. 111, Mar. 28, 1916.

Missouri: Repealing secs. 1524 to 1542, Art. XV, ch. 19, Revised Statutes of 1909, and enacting new sections in lieu thereof to bear the same numbers, relating to the Missouri Reformatory.

Name of institution changed from "Missouri training school for boys" to "Missouri reformatory." Any court having criminal jurisdiction, in which any male person between 18 and 30 years of age is convicted of a felony, may before commitment commute penitentiary sentence to confinement in the Missouri Reformatory (this is added by amendment and is in addition to commitments of boys under 18). Governor may commute sentence of any person between 18 and 30 who has been sentenced to penitentiary and such person may be confined in reformatory. (Under old law sentence of boy under

21 could be so commuted). Court may not parole a boy after he is receiv into reformatory; board of managers may parole boy. Older and m hardened inmates shall be kept separate from other inmates.
H. B. 382, p. 209, Mar. 15, 1915

Montana: Changing the name of the Montana State Reform School to t Montana State Industrial School. Ch. 136, Mar. 9, 1915

Montana: Fixing penalty for aiding any inmate of the Montana State Ind trial School to escape. Ch. 34, Feb. 15, 1917

Montana: Amending sec. 9810, Revised Codes, 1907, relating to relea parole, or pardon of inmates of the Montana State Industrial School.

Authorizes trustees to grant a full and unconditional pardon. Presid may recall a paroled boy or girl guilty of improper conduct or not residing i a suitable home. Ch. 57, Feb. 15, 1917

New Hampshire: See A (b1), State boards.

New Jersey: Authorizing the trustees of the State Home for Girls to pare and board in private family any girl committed to said school and to se such girls to educational or vocational institutions for instruction.
Ch. 46, Mar. 16, 1917

New Mexico: Defining juvenile delinquency; providing for the reformati of juvenile delinquents, and providing for the punishment of persons wh contribute to such delinquency. Ch. 4, Feb. 19, 1917

New Mexico: Providing for the care, treatment, control, and dispositio dependent and neglected children and providing for the punishment of perso contributing to such dependency and neglect. Ch. 85, Mar. 13, 1917

New York: Amending the education law, relative to county farm schoo

Adds a new article providing for the establishment of county farm schoo Board of supervisors of any county outside of the City of New York m acquire land and provide buildings for such a school. Board of managers sha consist of not less than five members and shall be composed of all the cit village, and district superintendents of schools of the county; if number such superintendents is less than five, supervisors shall appoint addition members. Members shall serve without compensation, but shall be entitled necessary expenses. Said board shall be responsible for the operation an maintenance of the school; employ a superintendent and necessary teacher when authorized by supervisors; fix compensation of superintendent and teach ers within amount made available by supervisors; prescribe rules and regula tions; provide for the detention, maintenance, and instruction of children ad mitted to school. Board of managers shall prescribe courses of instructio subject to approval of commissioner of education; such courses shall inclu agriculture, mechanic arts, trades, and homemaking. State aid of $1,000, an $200 additional for each teacher employed for 36 weeks, is annually allowed, b there must be at least 15 pupils in actual attendance for 36 weeks and condit of school must be approved by commissioner of education. Children betwe 8 and 18 years old may be admitted to said school either (1) on applicatio of parents or guardians, (2) upon commitment as truants or incorrigibles, o (3) upon commitment as juvenile delinquents, but no child convicted of crim shall be committed. Managers may make an agreement with parents o guardian of a child for the payment for instruction and maintenance of sai child. Application for admission of a child shall not be granted unless cloth ing be provided for such child; parents or guardians who are financially abl may be required to pay for instruction and maintenance of child who is ad mitted by commitment. County board of supervisors shall provide for the maintenance of farm school. Managers shall report annually to supervisors Said schools shall be subject to control of commissioner of education as are other public schools. Ch. 307, Apr. 14, 1915

New York: See also H (f), Compulsory attendance.

North Carolina: Establishing a State home and industrial school for girls and women. Ch. 255, Mar. 7, 1917.

North Carolina: See also U (c), Juvenile courts.

North Dakota: Providing for the compensation of inmates of the State form School for work performed by them and providing for the disposition moneys earned. H. B. 109, p. 51, Pop. Ed., Mar. 12, 1917.

North Dakota: Proposing an amendment to the constitution changing the me of the State Reform School at Mandan to State Training School.
H. B. 346, p. 117, Pop. Ed., Mar. 15, 1917.

Ohio: Amending sec. 7681 of the General Code, by providing that public ools shall be free to inmates of private orphan asylums and children's homes.
S. B. No. 280, p. 489, June 3, 1915.

Ohio: Regulating the education of inmates of children's homes.
H. B. No. 164, p. 60, Mar. 19, 1917.

Oklahoma: Creating a State training school for delinquent negro boys, locatg the same, providing for its management and control, and making an approiation therefor. Ch. 252, Mar. 30, 1915.

Oklahoma: Creating a school for delinquent and incorrigible negro girls at aft, Okla., providing rules for governing the same, and making an appropriaon. Ch. 66, Mar. 10, 1917.

Oklahoma: Creating an institution to be known as the West Oklahoma ome for White Children and converting the Connell School of Agriculture into ich home. Ch. 169, Mar. 26, 1917.

Oklahoma: Establishing an institution to be known as the "Russell Industrial School" for training white girls committed thereto by the county courts.
Ch. 255, Mar. 22, 1917.

Oregon: Amending sec. 13, ch. 342, acts of 1913, relating to the admission f youths to the Oregon State Training School, providing employment for said ouths, and making an appropriation therefor.

Raises from 16 to 18 the maximum age under which youths may be comnitted. Appropriates $10,000 for industrial school appliances and for establishing manual training workrooms, dormitory quarters, etc.
Ch. 243, Feb. 24, 1915.

Oregon: Authorizing the establishing, equipping, maintaining, and conducting parental schools; governing religious instruction in parental schools; providing procedure for commitment thereto and parole therefrom; defining habitual truants, habitual absentees, and habitual school offenders.
Ch. 242, Feb. 19, 1917.

Oregon: Prohibiting the use of public funds, after Dec. 31, 1918, for the care or support of any dependent, delinquent, or defective child, except in a State institution. Ch. 339, Feb. 20, 1917.

Pennsylvania: Requiring counties now or hereafter containing a population of not less than 750,000 and not more than 1,200,000 to establish and maintain schools for the care and education of female children under the jurisdiction of the juvenile courts, and conferring the powers and regulating the proceedings for the establishment thereof. Act No. 140, May 5, 1915.

Pennsylvania: Authorizing the several counties of the State to establish and maintain schools for the care and education of children under the jurisdiction of the courts of quarter sessions of the peace, or other courts sitting as juvenile courts. Act. No. 256, July 5, 1917.

Porto Rico: Regulating the administration of the Territorial reform school for boys under 16 years of age. No. 6, Apr. 11, 1917.

Rhode Island: See U (c), Juvenile courts.

South Carolina: An act to amend secs. 992 and 993, Vol. II, Code of 1912, relating to the South Carolina Industrial School.

Places all matters relating to the management of said school and the custody of boys committed thereto under the exclusive supervision and control of trustees of said school. Repeals that part of sec. 993 which provided for the release of an inmate by order of a judge of the supreme court or circuit court "in a proceeding in the nature of an application for a writ of habeas corpus" and provides for release upon the recommendation of the superintendent or upon the hearing of an application or petition presented to the board of trustees. Act No. 509, Mar. 25, 1916.

South Carolina: See also A (b1), State boards.

South Dakota: Providing for the parole or discharge of delinquent children from the State Training School at Plankinton.

State board of charities authorized to grant such parole. Ch. 291, Mar. 2, 1917.

South Dakota: See also U (c), Juvenile courts.

Tennessee: An act to establish an institution to be known as the "Tennessee Vocational Reformatory for Girls;" to provide the funds necessary for the purchase of a site therefor; the erection, remodeling, and furnishing buildings and the payment of operation expenses; to provide for the appointment of a board of managers for said institution; to fix their terms of office and prescribe their powers and duties; to authorize judges of the juvenile, city, county, and criminal, and circuit courts to commit girls of certain classes to said institution and for other purposes. Ch. 24, Mar. 11, 1915.

Tennessee: Amending ch. 599, acts of 1907, relating to the Tennessee Reformatory for Boys.

Amendment has effect of abolishing board of trustees of said institution and transferring its powers and duties to the Tennessee Board of Control. Ch. 5, Jan. 29, 1915.

Tennessee: Providing for and authorizing the removal of a portion of the inmates of the Tennessee Reformatory for Boys to the State-owned land lying in Bledsoe, Cumberland, White, and Van Buren Counties, known as the "Herbert Domain;" providing for changing the name of said institution to "State Training and Agricultural School for Boys," and providing ways and means for carrying out the purposes of this act. Ch. 97, Apr. 7, 1917.

Tennessee: See also A (b), State boards; U (c), Juvenile courts.

Texas: Providing penalty for aiding an inmate of the girls' training school to escape. Ch. 111, Mar. 28, 1917.

Vermont: See A (a), Administration and supervision, general; A (b2), State officers; U (c), Juvenile courts.

Washington: Amending sec. 8933, Remington and Ballinger's Annotated Codes and Statutes, relating to the State board of control.

Adds State school for girls to institutions managed and governed by said board. Ch. 107, Mar. 16, 1915.

West Virginia: Amending secs. 1 and 4, ch. 80, acts of 1909, relating to the children's home at Elkins.

Transfers control of such home from board of directors of the West Virginia humane society to the State board of control. Ch. 23, Feb. 24, 1917.

West Virginia: Amending certain sections of ch. 70, acts of 1915, regulating the care of dependent, neglected, and delinquent children.

Provides for juvenile courts, probation officers, etc. Authorizes counties to levy taxes for the establishment and maintainance of homes for such children. Ch. 63, Mar. 3, 1917.

West Virginia: See also U (c), Juvenile courts.

Wisconsin: Amending sec. 4966, 4969, and 1546 of the statutes and creating sec. 1546a, relating to the age and term of commitment to Wisconsin industrial

Any boy under 16 (was 18) convicted of a criminal offense may be committed to industrial school until the age of 18 (was 21) is reached, unless sooner discharged according to law. Corresponding ages for girls remain as before, that is, 18 and 21, respectively. Ch. 387, July 8, 1915.

Wisconsin: Creating secs. 4970–1, 4970–2, 4970–3, 4970–4, 4970–5, 4970–6, Wisconsin Statutes, relating to the Wisconsin Industrial School for Girls.

The Wisconsin Industrial School for Girls in the city of Milwaukee is made a State institution. Jurisdiction of State board of control is extended to said institution. Statutes in force relating to the commitment of girls to said institution are continued in force. Ch. 486, June 23, 1917.

Wisconsin: Accepting certain trust funds from the Wisconsin Industrial School for Girls and authorizing the execution and carrying out the trust for which said funds are set aside by said school. Ch. 636, Mar. 10, 1917.

Wyoming: Providing for the protection of children, defining child dependency and delinquency, authorizing agencies and institutions for the care of dependent and delinquent children, and providing State supervision and record of such child welfare work. Ch. 99, Feb. 25, 1915.

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